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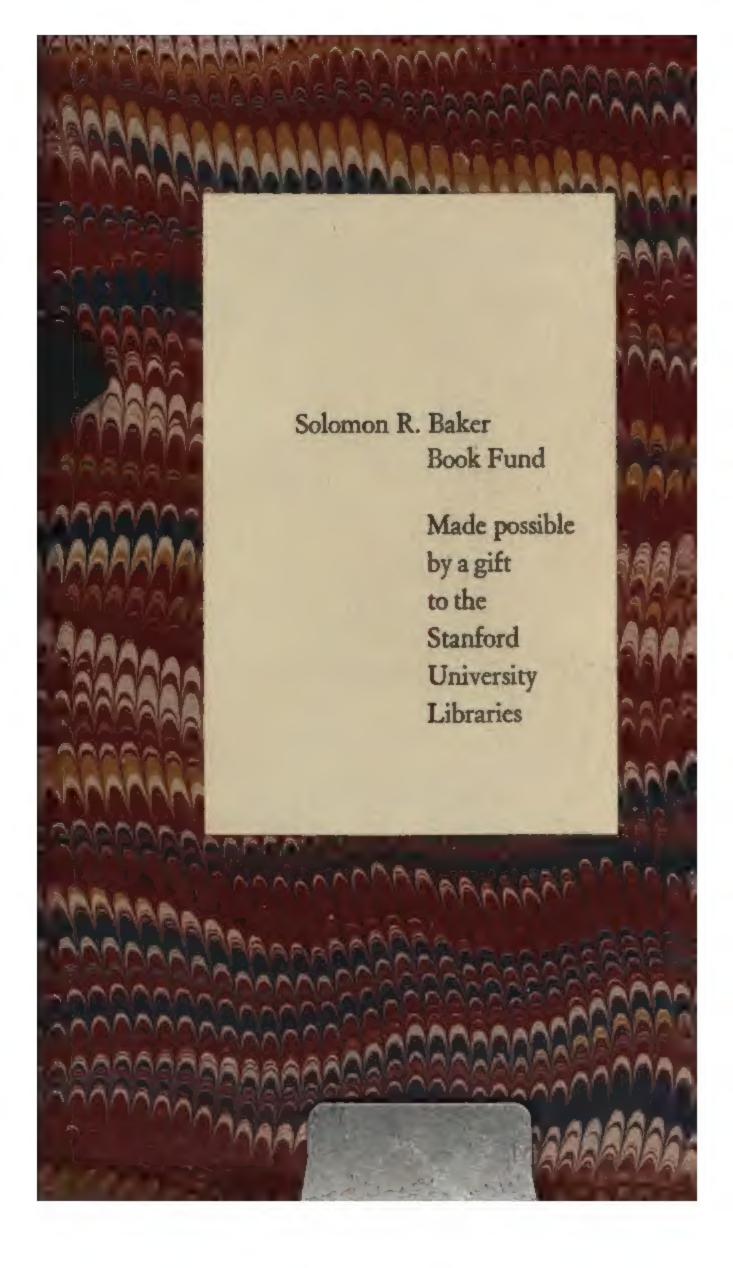
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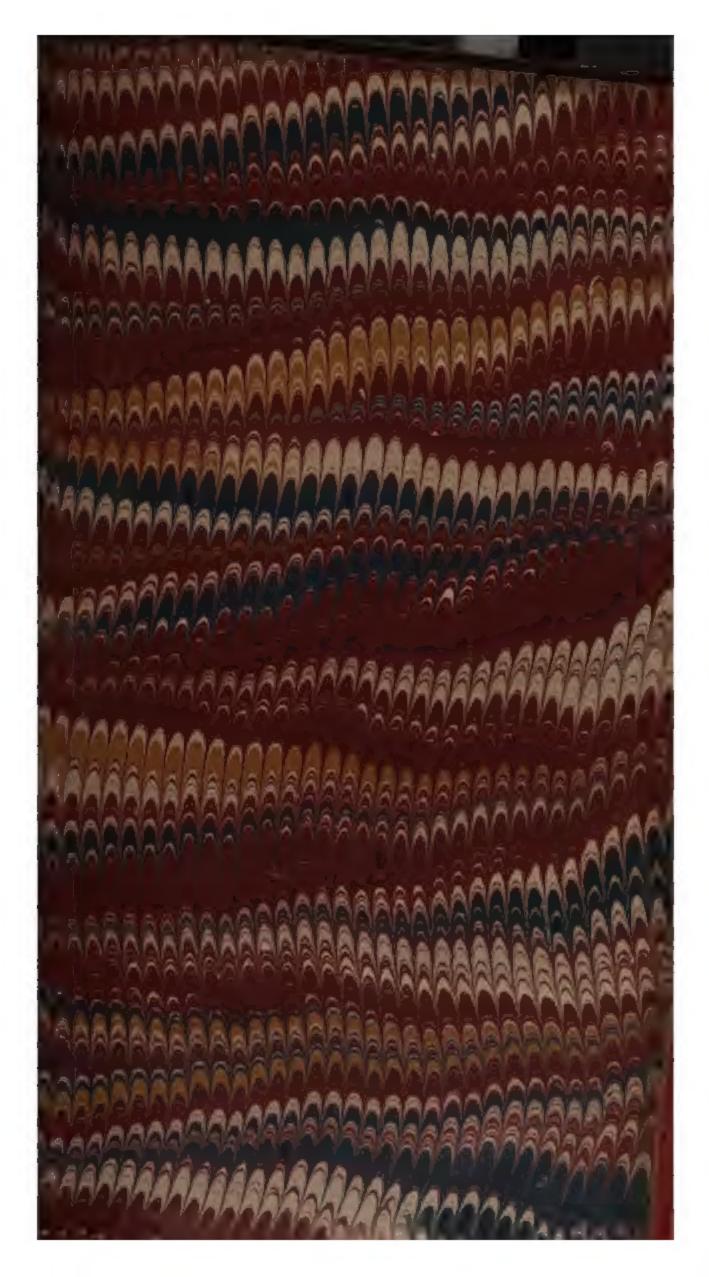
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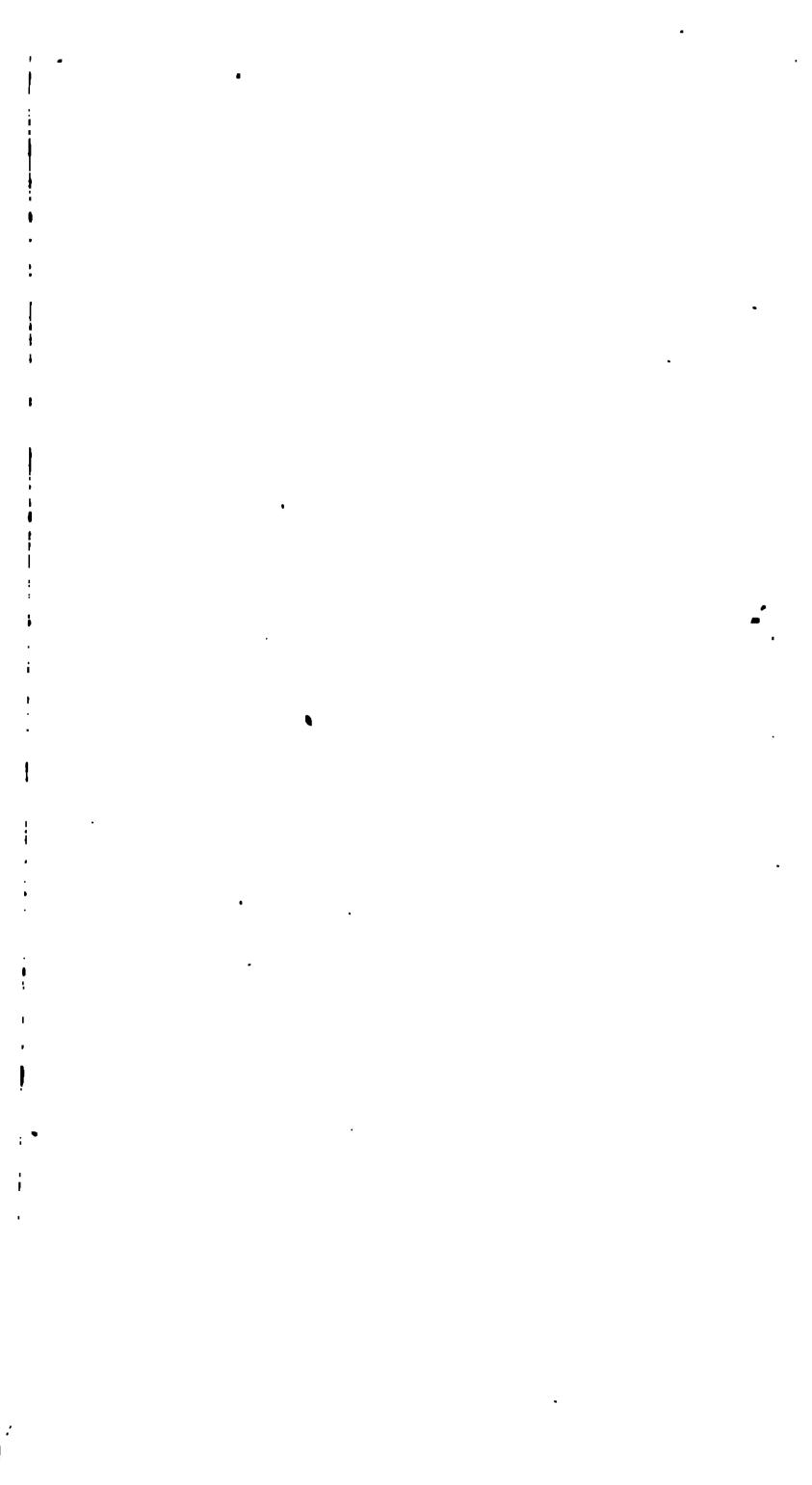
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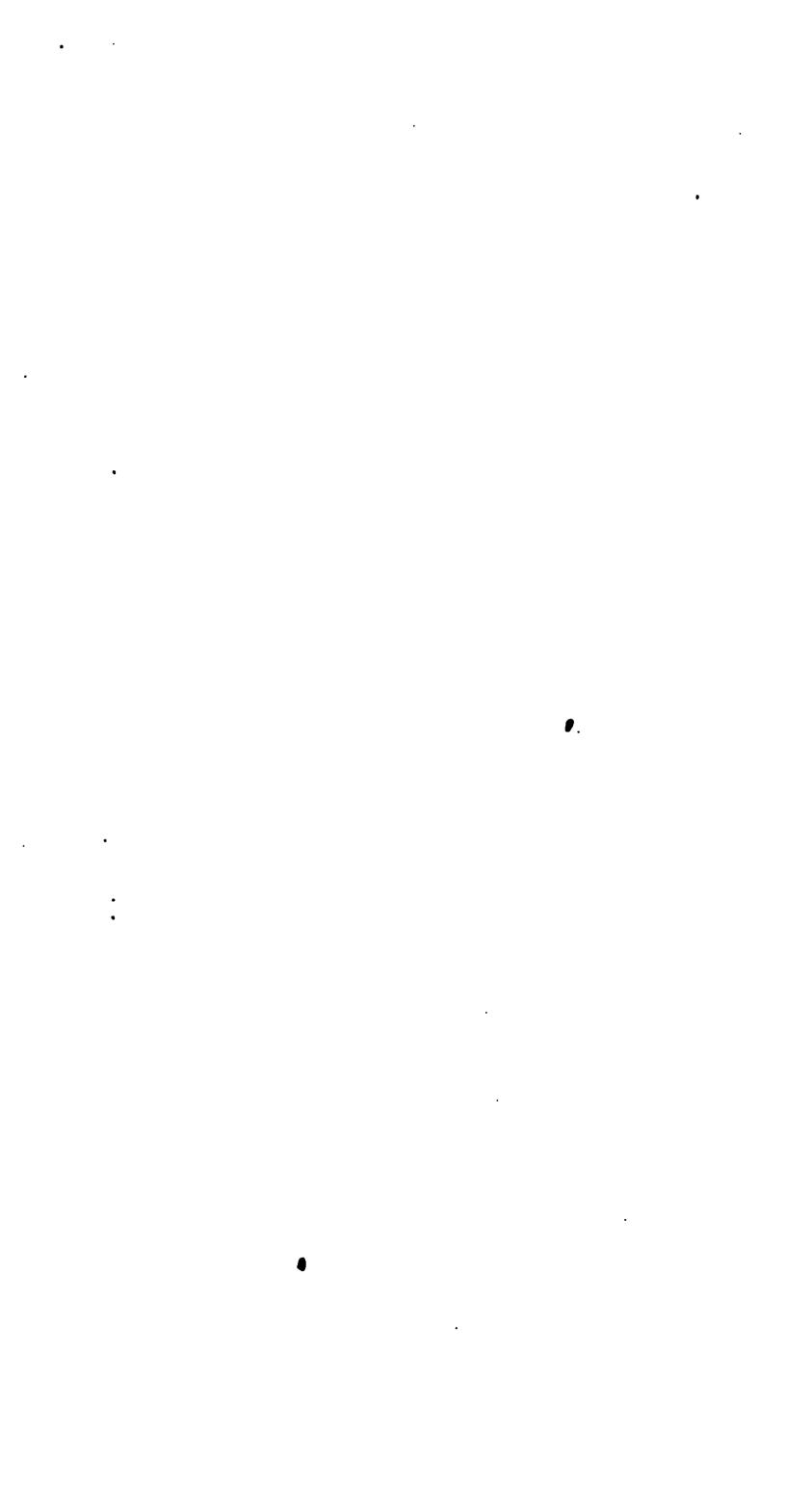
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AN

# ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY,

ANTIENT AND MODERN,

FROM

THE BIRTH OF CHRIST

TO THE

BEGINNING OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

VOL. IV.



# ECCLESIASTICAL HISTOR

# ANTIENT AND MODERN,

FROM

THE BIRTH OF CHRIST

TO THE

BEGINNING OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY:

IN SIX VOLUMES.

IN . WHICH

THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND VARIATIONS OF CHURCH POWER

ARE CONSIDERED

IN THEIR CONNEXION WITH THE STATE OF LEARNING AND PHILOSOP

THE POLITICAL HISTORY OF EUROPE DURING THAT PERIOD.

JOHN LAWRENCE MOSHEIM, D. D.

AND CHANCELLOR OF THE UNIVERSITY OF GOTTINGEN.

TRANSLATED from the ORIGINAL LATIN, and accompanied with Nor

and CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES,

BY ARCHIBALD MACLAINE, D. D.

TO WHICH IS ADDED,

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# ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

BOOK THE FOURTH.

CONTAINING THE

# HISTORY OF THE CHURCH

FROM

The Beginning of the Reformation by Luther

TO

THE PRESENT TIMES.

Vol IV.



# INTRODUCTION.

I. THE order and method, that have been followed in the former part of this Work, The mecannot be continued, without the greatest incon-served in veniences, in this Fourth Book, which relates to the precedthe modern history of the church. From commencement of the sixteenth century, the changed in face of religion was remarkably changed; the di-the Fourth visions, that had formerly perplexed the church, increased considerably; and the Christian societies, that relinquished the established forms of divine worship, and erected themselves into separate assemblies, upon principles different from those of the Roman hierarchy, multiplied from day to day. This circumstance renders it impossible to present in one connected series, or, as it were, in one continued tablature, the events, vicissitudes, and revolutions, that happened in the church, divided its members, and enfeebled the dominion of its tyrants. From the period on which we now enter, the bond of union among Christians, that had been formed by a blind obedience to the Roman pontifs, was everywhere either dissolved, or, at least, relaxed; and consequently this period of our history must be divided into a multitude of branches, into as many parts, as there were famous sects that arose in this century.

II. It is however proper to observe here, that The history of the many of the events, which distinguish this cen-church in tury, had a manifest relation to the church in this centugeneral, and not to any Christian society in par-divided in-

B 2

ticular. to two ge-

### INTRODUCTION.

tioned separately, on account of their remarkable tendency to throw a light upon the state of Christianity in general, as well as upon the history of each particular Christian society, we shall therefore divide this Fourth Book into two main and principal parts, of which the one shall contain the General, and the other the Particular bistory of the Christian religion.

The general history of the church—its extent.

III. To the General History belong all those events which relate to the state of Christianity, considered in itself and in its utmost extent, to the Christian church viewed in the general, and abstracted from the miserable and multiplied divisions into which it was rent by the passions of men. Under this head we shall take notice of the advancement and progress of Christianity in general, without any regard to the particular sects that were thus instrumental in promoting its interests; nor shall we omit the consideration of certain doctrines, rites, and institutions, which appeared worthy of admiration to all, or, at least, to the greatest part of the Christian sects, and which consequently produced every where changes and improvements of more or less importance.

Particular history.

IV. In the Particular History of this century, we propose passing in review, in their proper order, the various sects into which the Christian church was divided. This part of our work, for the sake of method and precision, we shall subdivide into two. In the first we shall comprehend what relates to the more ancient Christian sects, both in the eastern and western hemispheres while the second shall be confined to the history of those more modern societies, the date of whose origin is posterior to the Reformation in Germany. In the accounts that are here to be given of the circumstances, fate, and doctrines of each sect, the method laid down in the Preface to this Work

shall be rigorously observed, as far as is possible; since it seems the most adapted to lead us to an accurate knowledge of the nature, progress, and tenets of every Christian society, that arose in these times of discord.

V. The most momentous event that distin-History of guished the church after the fifteenth century, and the Reforwe may add, the most glorious of all the Revolutions that happened in the state of Christianity since the time of its divine and immortal Founder, was that happy change introduced into religion, which is known by the title of the Blessed Reformation. This grand revolution, which arose in Saxony from small beginnings, not only spread itself with the utmost rapidity through all the European provinces, but also extended its efficacy more or less to the most distant parts of the globe, and may be justly considered as the main and principal spring which has moved the nations from that illustrious period, and occasioned the greatest part both of those civil and religious revolutions that fill the annals of history down to our times. The face of Europe was, in a more especial manner, changed by this great event. The present age feels yet, in a sensible manner, and ages to come will continue to perceive, the inestimable advantages it produced, and the inconveniences of which it has been the innocent occasion. The history therefore of such an important revolution, from whence so many others have derived their origin, and whose relations and connexions are so extensive and universal, demands undoubtedly a peculiar degree of attention, and has an unquestionable right to the principal place in such a work as this. We therefore now proceed to give a compendious view of the modern history of the Christian church, according to the plan and method already laid down.

# SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

#### SECTION I.

### THE HISTORY OF THE REFORMATION.

The division of the
first facThe Fractivity of the Reformation is too
ample and extensive to be comprehended
of the division of the therefore divide it into Four Parts.

The First will contain An Account of the State of Christianity before the Commencement of the Re-

formation.

The Second, The History of the Reformation, from its first Beginnings until the date of the Confession drawn up at Augsburg.

The THIRD will exhibit A View of the same History, from this latter period to the Commence-

ment of the war of Smalcald. And,

The Fourth will carry it down to The Peace that was entered into with the Abettors of the Reformation in the year 1555 [a]. This division is natural; it arises spontaneously from the events themelves.

CHAP.

[a] The writers of the History of the Reformation, of every rank and order, are enumerated by the very learned Philip Frid. Hane (who himself deserves a most eminent rank in this class), in his Historia Sacronum a Luthero Emendatorum, part I. cap. i. p. 1. and by Jo. Alb. Fabricius, in his Centifolium Lutheranum, part II. cap. clxxxvii. p. 863.—The greatest part, or at least the most eminent, of this list of authors must be consulted by such as desire a farther confirmation or illustration

# CHAPTER I.

Concerning the state of the Christian Church before the Reformation.

BOUT the commencement of this cen-CENT. tury the Roman pontifs lived in the ut-s z c T. I. most tranquillity; nor had they, as things ap-Things are peared to be situated, the least reason to appre-in 2 quiet hend any opposition to their pretensions, or re-state at the begin-bellion against their authority; since those dread-ning of ful commotions, which had been excited in the this centu-. preceding ages by the Waldenses, Albigenses, 17. and Beghards, and lately by the Bohemians, were entirely suppressed, and had yielded to the united powers of counsel and the sword. Such of the Waldenses as yet remained, lived contented under the difficulties of extreme poverty in the vallies of Piedmont, and proposed to themselves no higher earthly felicity, than that of leaving to their descendants that wretched and obscure corner of Europe, which separates the Alps from the Pyrenean mountains; while the handful of Bohemians, that survived the ruin of their faction, and still persevered in their opposition to the Roman yoke, had neither strength nor knowledge adequate to any new attempt, and therefore, instead of inspiring-terror, became objects of contempt.

II. We must not, however, conclude from this The complaints apparent tranquillity and security of the pontifs gainst the and their adherents, that their measures were appropriate plauded, or their chains worn without reluctance. Section.

B4 This

illustration of the matters which I propose to relate briefly in the course of this history. The illustrious names of SLEIDAN and SECKENDORFF, and others, who have distinguished themselves in this kind of erudition, are too well known to render it necessary to recommend their works to the perusal of the curicus reader. CENT. This was far from being the case. Not only pri-S I C T. I. vate persons, but also the most powerful princes and sovereign states, exclaimed loudly against the despotic dominion of the pontifs, the fraud, violence, avarice, and injustice that prevailed in their counsels, the arrogance, tyranny, and extortion of their legates, the unbridled licentiousness and enormous crimes of the clergy and monks of all denominations, the unrighteous severity and partiality of the Roman laws, and demanded publicly, as their ancestors had done before them, a Reformation of the church, in its head and in its members, and a general council to accomplish that necessary and happy purpose [b]. But these complaints and demands were not carried so far as to produce any good effect; since they came from persons who never presumed to entertain the least doubt about the supreme authority of the Pope in religious matters, and who, of consequence, instead of attempting, themselves, to bring about that reformation that was so ardently desired, remained entirely unactive, and looked for redress to the court of Rome, or to a general council. As long as the authority of the Roman pontif was held sacred, and his jurisdiction supreme, there could be no reason to expect any considerable reformation either of the corruptions of the church or of the manners of the clergy. III. If

<sup>[</sup>b] These complaints and accusations have been largely enumerated by several writers. See, among many others, VAL. ERN. LOESCHERUS, in Actis et documentis Reformationis, tom. i. cap. v. p. 105.—cap. ix. p. 181. & ERN. SALOM. CYPRIAN. Præfat. ad Wilk. Ern. Tenzelii Historiam Reformat. published at Leipsic in 8vo, in the year 1717.—The grievances complained of by the Germans in particular, are amply mentioned by J. F. GERGIUS, in his Gravamina Imperator. et nationis Granan. adversus sedem Roman, cap. vii. p. 261. Nor do the wiser and more learned among the modern Romanists pretend to deny that the church and clergy, before the time of LUTHER, were corrupted in a very high degree.

# CHAP. I. The History of the Reformation.

III. If any thing seemed proper to destroy the C E gloomy empire of superstition, and to alarm the S z c security of the lordly pontifs, it was the restoration of learning in Europe, and the number of men ration of genius that arose, of a sudden, under the be-learning nign influence of that auspicious revolution. But even this new scene of things was insufficient to terrify the lords of the church, or to make them apprehend the decline of their power. indeed, this happy revolution in the republic of letters dispelled the gloom of ignorance, and kindled in the minds of many the love of truth and sacred liberty. Nay, it is also certain that many of these great men, such as Erasmus and others, pointed the delicacy of their wit, or levelled the fury of their indignation, at the superstitions of the times, the corruptions of the priesthood, the abuses that reigned in the court of Rome, and the brutish manner of the Monastic Orders. But this was not sufficient, since none had the courage to strike at the root of the evil, to attack the papal jurisdiction and statutes, which were absurdly, yet artfully, sanctified by the title of canon-law, or to call in question that ancient and most pernicious opinion, that Christ had established a vicegerent at Rome, cloathed with his supreme and unlimited authority. Entrenched, therefore, within these strong-holds, the pontifs looked upon their own authority and the peace of the church as beyond the reach of danger, and treated with indifference the threats and invectives of their enemies. Armed, moreover, with power to punish, and abundantly furnished with the means of rewarding in the most alluring manner, they were ready, on every commotion, to crush the obstinate, and to gain over the mercenary to their cause; and this indeed could not but contribute considerably to the such lay of their dominion.

IV. Hence

Pins III.

CENT. IV. Hence it was, that the bishops of Rome S E C T. I. lived in the utmost security and ease, and being entirely free from apprehensions and cares of The popes every kind, followed without reluctance, and Alexander gratified without any limitation or restraint, the various demands of their lusts and passions. ALEXANDER VI. whom humanity disowns, and who is rather to be considered as a monster than as a man, whose deeds excite horror, and whose enormities place him among the most execrable tyrants of ancient times, stained the commencement of this century by the most tremendous crimes. The world was delivered from this papal fiend in the year 1503, by the poisonous draught which he had prepared for others, as is generally believed; though there are historians that attribute his death to sickness and old age [c]. He was succeeded in the pontificate by Pius III. who, in less than a month, was deprived by death of that high dignity. The vacant chair was obtained by fraud and bribery by Julian DE LA Rovere, who assumed the denomination of Julius II.

Julius II.

V. To the odious list of vices with which Julius II. dishonoured the pontificate, we may add the most savage ferocity, the most audacious arrogance, the most despotic vehemence of temper, and the most extravagant and frenetic passion for war and bloodshed. He began his military enterprises by entering into a war with the Venetians, after having strengthened his cause by an alliance with the emperor and the king of France [d].

[d] See Du Bos, Histoire de la Lique de Cambray, published at the Hague in two volumes 8vo, in the year 1713.

<sup>[</sup>c] See the Life of ALEXANDER VI. in two volumes &vo. by ALEX. GORDON, Esq.—As also another life of the same pontif, written with more moderation, and subjoined, along with that of LEO X. to the first volume of the learned and ir genious work entitled, Histoire du Droit publique Ecclesiastique Francois, par M. D. B. published in 4to at London, in 1752.

He afterwards laid siege to Farrara; and, at CENT. length, turned his arms against his former ally, the STCT. LE French monarch, in conjunction with the Venetians, Spaniards, and Swiss, whom he had drawn into this war, and engaged in his cause by an offensive league. His whole pontificate, in short, was one continued scene of military tumult; nor did he suffer Europe to enjoy a moment's tranquillity as long as he lived. We may easily imagine the miserable condition of the church under a vicar of Christ, who lived in camps, amidst the din of arms, and who was ambitious of no other fame than that which arose from battles won and cities laid desolate. Under such a pontif all things must have gone to ruin; the laws must have been subverted, the discipline of the church destroyed, and the genuine lustre of true religion entirely effaced.

VI. Nevertheless, from this dreadful cloud that hung over Europe, some rays of light seemed to cil of Piss. break forth, that promised a better state of things, and gave some reason to expect that reformation in the church that was so ardently and so universally desired. Lewis XII. king of France, provoked by the insults he had received from this arrogant pontif, meditated revenge, and even caused a medal to be struck with a menacing inscription, expressing his resolution to overturn the power of Rome, which was represented by the title of Babylon on this coin [e]. Several cardinals also, encouraged by the protection of this monarch and the emperor Maximilian I. assembled, in the year 1511, a council at Pisa, with an intention to

<sup>[</sup>e] See B. CHRIST. SIGISMUND. LIEBH Commentatio de nummis Ludovici XII. Epigraphe, PERDAM BABYLONIS NOMEN insignibus; Leipsic, 1717—See also Thesaurus Epistolicus Crozianus, tom. ii. p. 238.—13.—Colonia, Histoire Liver. de la Ville de Lyon, tom. ii. p. 443.—The authenticity and occasion of this medal have been much disputed, and, as is well known, have afforded matter of keen debate.

CENT. set bounds to the tyranny of this furious pontif, 8 t c T. I. and to correct and reform the errors and corrup tions of a superstitious church. Julius, on the other hand, relying on his own strength, and on the power of his allies, beheld these threatening appearances without the least concern, treated them with mockery and laughter. did not, however, neglect the methods of rendering ineffectual the efforts of his enemies, that prudence dictated, and therefore gave orders for a council to meet in the palace of the Lateran in the year 1512 [f], in which the decrees of the council of Pisa were condemned and annulled in the most injurious and insulting terms. condemnation would, undoubtedly, have been followed with the most dire and formidable anathemas against Lewis and other Princes, had not death snatched away this audacious pontif, in the

Leo X.

dictive projects. VII. He was succeeded, in the year 1513, by LEO X. of the family of Medicis, who, though of a milder disposition than his predecessor, was nevertheless equally indifferent about the interests of religion and the advancement of true piety. He was a protector of men of learning, and was himself learned as far as the darkness of the age would admit of. His time was divided between conversation with men of letters and pleasure; though it must be observed, that the greatest part of it was consecrated to the latter. He had an invincible aversion to whatever was accompanied with solicitude and care, and discovered the greatest impatience under events of that nature. He was remarkable for his prodigality, luxury, and imprudence, and has even been charged with impiety, if not atheism. He did not however neglect

year 1512, in the midst of his ambitious and vin-

[f] HARDUINI Concilia, tom. ix. p. 1559.

# CHAP. I. The History of the Reformation.

neglect the grand object which the generality of CEN his predecessors had so much at heart, even the SECT promoting and advancing the opulence and grandeur of the Roman see. For he took the utmost. care that nothing should be transacted in the council of the Lateran, which Julius had assembled and left sitting, that had the least tendency to favour the Reformation of the church. He went still farther; and, in a conference which he had with Francis I. king of France, at Bologna, he engaged that monarch to abrogate the Pragmatic Sanction [8], which had been so long odious to the popes of Rome, and to substitute in its place another body of laws, more advantageous to the papacy, which were imposed upon his subjects under the title of the Concordate, and received with the utmost indignation and reluctance [b].

VIII. The

[g] We have mentioned this Pragmatic Sanction, Cent. XV. Part II. Chap. II. sect. xvi. note [q], and given there some account of its nature and design. This important edict is published at large in the eight volume of the Concilia Harduini, p. 1949. as is the Concordate, that was substituted in its place, in the ninth volume of the same work, p. 1867. and in Leibnitz, his Mantissa Codicis Diplomat. part 1. p. 158. part II. p. 358.—The history of these two pieces is given in an ample and accurate manner by bishop Burnet, in his History of the Reformation, vol. iii. p. 3.—See also on the same subject. De Boulay, Historia Acad. Paris. tom. vi. p. 61.—109. Du Clos, Histoire de Louis XI.—Histoire du Droit Ecclesias ique Francois, tom. i. Diss. ix. p. 415.—Menigiana, tom. iii. p. 285.

the Concordate to be registered, and letters patent were made out requiring all the judges and courts of justice to observe this —Act, and see it executed. The parliament, after deliberating a month upon this important matter, concluded not to register the Concordate, but to observe stile the Pragmatic, unless the former edict was received and established in as great an assembly as that was, which published the latter in the reign of CHARLES VII. And when by violence and force they were obliged to publish the Concordate, they joined to this publication a solemn protest, and an appeal from the pope to the next general council, into both which measures the university and the clergy entered with the greatest alacrity and zeal. But royal and papal despotism at length prevailed.

The

## The History of the Reformation.

C E.N T. VIII. The raging thirst of dominion that cons ic r. I sumed these pontifs, and their arrogant endeavours XVI. to crush and oppress all that came within the reach of their power, were accompanied with the rice of the most insatiable avarice. All the provinces of bober. Europe were, in a manner, drained to enrich these ghostly tyrants, who were perpetually gaping after

> The chancellor DE PRAT, who was principally concerned in promoting the Concordate, has been generally regarded as an enemy to the liberties of the Gallican church. The illustrious . and learned president HAINAULT has not, however, hesitated to defend his memory against this accusation, and to justify the Concordate as an equitable contract, and as a measure attended with less inconveniencies than the Pragmatic Sanction. He observes, that by the king's being invested, by the Concordate, with the privilege of nominating to the bishoprics and vacant benefices of the first class, many corruptions and abuses were prevented, which arose from the simoniacal practices that prevailed almost every where, while, according to the Pragmatic Sanction, every church chose its bishop, and every monastery its abbot. He observes, moreover, that this nomination was the natural right of the crown, as the most considerable part of the great benefices had been created by the kings of France, and he insists particularly on this consideration, that the right which Christian communities have to chuse their leaders, cannot be exercised by such large bodies without much confusion and many inconveniencies: and that the subjects, by entrusting their sovereign with the government of the state, invest him, ipso facto, with an authority over the church which is a part of the state, and its noblest branch. See HAINAULT, Abregé Chronologique de l'Histoire de France, in the particular remarks that are placed at the end of the reign of Lewis XIV.

The most specious objection that was made to the Concordate was this: that in return for the nomination to the vacant benefices, the king granted to the popes the annates, or first fruits, which had been complained of as an intolerable grievance. There is, however, no mention of this equivalent in the Concordate. And it was by a papal bull that succeeded this compact, that the pontifs claimed the payment of the first fruits, of which they had put themselves in possession in the year 1316, and which had been suspended by the Pragmatic Sanction. Histoire du Droit Ecclesiastique François. As this substitution of the Concordate, in the place of the Pragmatic Sanction, was a most important transaction, and had a very great influence upon the minds of the English, the translator judged it necessary

to give here some account of that matter.

after new accessions of wealth, in order to aug-CENT. ment the number of their friends and the stability S x c T. F. of their dominion. And indeed, according to the notions commonly entertained, the rulers of the church seemed to have a fair enough pretext, from the nature of their character, to demand a sort of tribute from their flock; for none can deny to the supreme governors of any state (and such was the character assumed by the popes) the privilege of levying tribute from those over whom they bear rule. But as the name of tribute was every way proper to alarm the jealousy and excite the indignation of the civil magistrate, the pontifs were too cunning to employ it, and had recourse to various stratagems and contrivances to rob the subject without shocking the sovereign, and to levy taxes under the specious mask and pretext of religion. Among these contrivances, the distribution of indulgences, which enabled the wealthy to purchase impunity for their crimes by certain sums applied to religious uses, held an e-minent rank. This traffic of indulgences was constantly renewed whenever the coffers of the church were exhausted. On these occasions, they were recommended warmly to the ignorant multitude under some new, specious, yet fallacious pretext, and were greedily sought after, to the great detriment both of individuals and of the community.

IX. Notwithstanding the veneration and hom-The pope's age that were almost every where paid to the Ro-authority held informan pontifs, they were far from being universally rior to that reputed infallible in their decisions, or unlimited of a countin their authority. The wiser part of the German, French, Flemish, and British nations, considered them as liable to error, and bounded by law. The councils of Constance and Basil had contributed extremely to rectify the notions of the people in that respect; and from that period all

Christians,

CENT. Christians, except the superstitious monks and XVI.

BECT. I. parasites of Rome, were persuaded that the pope was subordinate to a general council, that his decrees were not infallible, and that the council had a right to depose him, whenever he was convicted of gross errors or enormous crimes. Thus were the people, in some measure, prepared for the reformation of the church; and hence that ardent desire, that earnest expectation of a general council, which filled the minds of the wisest and best Christians in this century. Hence also those frequent appeals that were made to this approaching council, when the court of Rome issued out any new edict, or made any new attempt repugnant to the dictates of piety and justice.

The corruption of the lower orders of

X. The licentious examples of the pontifs were zealously imitated in the lives and manners of the subordinate rulers and ministers of the church. the clergy. The greatest part of the bishops and canons passed their days in dissolute mirth and luxury, and squandered away, in the gratification of their lusts and passions, the wealth that had been set apart for religious and charitable purposes. Nor were they less tyrannical than voluptuous: for the most despotic princes never treated their vassals with more rigour and severity, than these ghostly rulers employed towards all such as were under their jurisdiction. The decline of virtue among the clergy was attended with the loss of the public esteem; and the most considerable part of that once-respected body became, by their sloth and avarice, their voluptuousness and impurity, their ignorance and levity, contemptible and infamous, not only in the eye of the wise and good, but also in the universal judgment of the multitude [i]. Nor

<sup>[</sup>i] See Cornelii Aurelii Gaudani Apocalypsis, seu Visio Mirabilis super miserabili Statu Matris Ecclesia, in CASPAR. BURMANNI Analect. Hist. de Hadriano VI. p. 245. printed in Ato at Utrecht, in 1727.

Nor could the case be otherwise as matters were C E N T now constituted; for, as all the offices and digni- SECT. I. ties of the church were become venal every where, the way of preferment was inaccessible to merit, and the wicked and licentious were rendered capable of rising to the highest ecclesiastical honours.

XI. The prodigious swarms of monks that over-The state o spread Europe were universally considered as cum-the monasberers of the ground, and occasioned murmurs and complaints every where. And, nevertheless, such was the genius of the age, of an age that was but just emerging from the thickest gloom of ignorance, and was suspended, as it were, in a dubious situation between darkness and light, that these monastic drones would have remained undisturbed. had they taken the least pains to preserve any remains even of the external air of decency and religion, that used to distinguish them in former times. But the Benedictine and the other monkish fraternities, who were invested with the privilege of possessing certain lands and revenues, broke through all restraint, made the worst possible use of their opulence, and, forgetful of the gravity of their character and of the laws of their order, rushed headlong into the shameless practice of vice in all its various kinds and degrees. On the other hand, the Mendicant orders, and especially those who followed the rule of St Dominick and St Francis, though they were not carried away with the torrent of licentiousness that was overwhelming the church, yet they lost their credit in a different way; for their rustic impudence, their ridiculous superstitions, their ignorance, cruelty, and brutish manners. alienated from them the minds of the people, and diminished their reputation from day to day. They had the most barbarous aversion to the arts and sciences, and expressed a like abhorrence of certain eminent and learned men, who endea-Vol. IV. voured

CENT. voured to open the paths of science to the pursuits svi. scit. I of the studious youth, recommended the culture of the mind, and attacked the barbarism of the age in their writings and in their discourse. This is sufficiently evident from what happened to Reuclinus, Erasmus, and other learned men.

The Dominicans.

XII. Among all the monastic orders, none enjoyed a higher degree of power and authority than the Dominican friars, whose credit was great, and their influence universal. This will not appear at all surprising, when we consider that they filled very eminent stations in the church, presided every where over the terrible tribunal of the inquisition, and had the care of souls, with the function of confessors, in all the courts of Europe; a circumstance this, which, in these times of ignorance and superstition, manifestly tended to put the most of the European princes in their power. But, notwithstanding all this credit and authority, the Dominicans had their enemies; and about this time their influence began to decline. Nay, several marks of perfidy, that appeared in the measures they employed to extend their authority, exposed them justly to the public indignation. Nothing more infamous than the frauds they practised to accomplish their purposes, as may be seen, among other examples, by the tragedy they acted at Bern, in the year 1509 [k]. They were perpetually

Ruchat, at the end of the sixth volume of his Histoire de la Reformatione en Suisse; and also by Hottinger, in his Histor. Eccles. Helvet. tom. i. p. 334. There is also a compendious, but distinct, narration of this infernal stratagem, in Bishop Burnet's Travels through France, Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, p. 31. The stratagem in question was the consequence of a rivalship between the Franciscans and Dominicans, and more especially of their controversy concerning the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary. The former maintained, that she was born without the blemish of original sin; the latter asserted the contrary. The doctrine of the Franciscans, in an

perpetually employed in stigmatising, with the CENT. opprobrious mark of Heresy, numbers of learned SECT. I. and

age of darkness and superstition, could not but be popular; and hence the Dominicans lost ground from day to day. To support the credit of their order, they re-clved, at a chapter held at Vimpsen in the year 1504, to have recourse to fictitious visions and dreams, in which the people at that time had an easy faith; and they determined to make Bern the scene of their operations. A person named Jetzer, who was extremely simple, and much inclined to austerities, and who had taken their habit, as a lay-brother, was chosen as the instrument of the delusions they were contriving. One of the four Dominicans, who had undertaken the management of this plot, conveyed himself secretly into Jerzer's cell, and about midnight appeared to him in a horrid figure, surrounded with howling dogs, and seeming to blow fire from his nostrils, by the means of a box of combustibles which he held near his mouth. In this frightful form he approached Jetzer's bed, told him that he was the ghost of a Dominicar, who had been killed at Paris, as a judgment of Heaven for laying aside his monastic habit; that he was condemned to purgatory for this crime; adding, at the same time, that, by his means, he might be rescued from his misery, which was beyond expression. This story, accompanied with horrible cries and howlings, frighted poor Jetzer out of the little wits he had, and engaged him to promise to do all that was in his power to deliver the Dominican from his torment. Upon this the impostor told him, that nothing but the most extraordinary mortifications, such as the Discipline of the Whip performed during eight days by the whole monastery, and Jetzer's lying prostrate in the form of one crucified in the chapel during mass, could contribute to his deliverance. He added, that the performance of these mortifications would draw down upon Jetzer the peculiar protection of the Blessed Virgin; and concluded by saying, that he would appear to him again, accompanied with two other spirits. Morning was no sooner come, than Jetzer gave an account of this apparition to the rest of the convent, who all unanimously advised him to undergo the discipline that was enjoined him; and every one consented to bear his share of the task imposed. The deluded simpleton obeyed, and was admired as a saint by the multitudes that crowded about the convent, while the four friars that managed the imposture magnified, in the most pompous manner, the miracle of this apparition, in their sermons and in their discourse. The night after, the apparition was renewed with the addition of two impostors, dressed like devils, and Jetzer's faith was augmented by hearing from the spectre

CENT and pious men, in encroaching upon the rights XVL and properties of others to augment their possessions,

all the secrets of his life and thoughts, which the impostors had learned from his confessor. In this and some subsequent scenes (the detail of whose enormities, for the sake of brevity, we shall here omit) the impostor talked much to Jetzer of the Dominican order, which he said was peculiarly dear to the blessed Virgin; he added, that the Virgin knew herself to be conceived in original sin; that the doctors who taught the contrary were in purgatory; that the blessed Virgin abhorred the Franciscans for making her equal with her son; and that the town of Bern would be destroyed for harbouring such plagues within her walls. In one of these apparitions, Jetzer imagined that the voice of the spectre resembled that of the prior of the convent, and he was not mistaken; but, not suspecting a fraud, he gave little attention to this. The prior appeared in various forms, sometimes in that of St Barbara, at others in that of St Bernard; at length he assumed that of the Virgin Mary, and, for that purpose, clothed himself in the habits that were employed to adorn the statue of the Virgin in the great festivals; the little images, that on these days are set on the altars, were made use of for angels, which being tied to a cord that passed through a pulley over Jetzer's head, rose up and down, and danced about the pretended virgin to increase the delusion. The Virgin thus equipped, addressed a long discourse to Jetzer, in which, among other things, she told him that she was conceived in original sin, though she had remained but a short time under that blemish. She gave him as a miraculous proof of her presence, a bost, or consecrated wafer, which turned from white to red in a moment; and after various visits, in which the greatest enormities were transacted, the Virgin-prior told Jetzer, that she would give him the most affecting and undoubted marks of her Son's love, by imprinting on him the five wounds that pierced Jesus on the cross, as she had done before to St Lucia and St Catharine. Accordingly, she took his hand by force, and struck a large nail through it, which threw the poor dupe into the greatest torment. The next night this masculine virgin, brought, as he pretended, some of the linen, in which Christ had been buried, to soften the wound, and gave Jetzer a soporific draught, which had in it the blood of an unbaptized child, some grains of incense and of consecrated salt, some quicksilver, the hairs of the eye brows of a child, all which, with some stupifying and poisonous ingredients, were mingled together by the prior with magic ceremonies, and a solemn dedication of himself to the devil in hope of his succour. draught threw the poor wretch into a sort of lethargy, during which

sions, and in laying the most iniquitous snares and C E N T. stratagems for the destruction of their adversa-S z C T. I.

which the monks imprinted on his body the other four wounds of Christ in such a manner that he felt no pain. When he awakened, he found to his unspeakable joy, these impressions on his body, and came at last to fancy himself a representative of Christ in the various parts of his passion. He was, in this state, exposed to the admiring multitude on the principal altar of the convent, to the great mortification of the Franciscans. The Dominicans gave him some other draughts, that threw him into convulsions, which were followed by a voice conveyed thro? a pipe into the mouths of two images, one of Mary and another of the child Jesus; the former of which had tears painted upon its cheeks in a lively manner. The little Jesus asked his mother, by means of this voice, (which was that of the prior's) why she wept? and she answered, that her tears were owing to the impious manner in which the Franciscans attributed to ber the honour that was due to bim, in saying that she was concrived and born without sin.

The apparitions, false prodigies, and abominable stratagems of these Dominicans were repeated every night, and the matter was at length so grossly over-acted, that, simple as Jetzer was, he at last discovered it, and had almost killed the prior, who appeared to him one night in the form of the Virgin with a crown on her head. The Dominicans fearing, by this discovery, to lose the fruits of their imposture, thought the best method would be to own the whole matter to Jetzer, and to engage him by the most seducing promises of opulence and glory, to carry on the cheat. Jetzer was persuaded, or at least appeared to be so. But the Dominicans, suspecting that he was not entirely gained over, resolved to poison him; but his constitution was so vigorous, that, though they gave him poison five several times, he was not destroyed by it. One day they sent him a loaf prepared with some spices, which, growing green in a day or two, he threw a piece of it to a wolf's whelps that were in the monastery, and it killed them immediately. At another time they poisoned the bost, or consecrated wafer, but as he vomited it up soon after he swallowed it, he escaped once more. In short, there were no means of securing him, which the most detestible impiety and barbarity could invent, that they did not put in practice, till, finding at last an opportunity of getting out of the convent, he threw himself into the hands of the magistrates, to whom he made a full discovery of this infernal plot. The affair being brought to Rome, commissaries were sent from thence to examine the matter; the whole cheat being fully proved, the four friars were solemnly

SECT. I. by whose instigation and advice Leo X. was determined to that most rash and imprudent measure, even the public condemnation of Luther.

The state of learning and of the public schools.

XIII. The principal places in the public schools of learning were filled very frequently by monks of the Mendicant orders. This unhappy circumstance prevented their emerging from that ignorance and darkness which had so long enveloped them; and it also rendered them inaccessible to that auspicious light of improved science, whose salutary beams had already been felt in several of the European provinces. The instructors of youth, dignitied with the venerable titles of Artists, Grammarians, Physicians, and Dialecticians, loaded the memories of their laborious pupils with a certain. quantity of barbarous terms, arid and senseless distinctions, and scholastic precepts delivered in the most inelegant style; and all such as could repeat this jargon with a certain readiness and rapidity, were considered as men of uncommon eloquence and erudition. The whole body of the philosophers extolled Aristotle beyond measure; while scarcely any studied him, and none understood him. For what was now exhibited, as the philosophy of that famous Grecian sage,

solemnly degraded from their priesthood, and were burnt alive on the last day of May, 1509. Jetzer died some time after at Constance, having poisoned himself, as was believed by some. Had his life been taken away before he had found an opportunity of making the discovery already mentioned, this execrable and horrid plot, which, in many of its circumstances was conducted with art, would have been handed down to posterity as a stupendous miracle. This is a very brief account of the matter; such as are desirous of a more circumstantial relation of this famous imposture, may consult the authors mentioned in the beginning of this note.

[1] See Bilib. Pirkheimeri Enistola ad Hadrianum Pontif. Maxim. de Dominicanorum flagitiis, in opp. ejus, p. 372. This letter is also to be found in Gerdesii Introd. ad Histor. Renovati Evangelii, tom. i. p. 170. Append.

sage, was really nothing more than a confused CENT. and motley heap of obscure notions, sentences, SECT. I. and divisions, which even the public doctors and heads of schools were unable to comprehend. And if, among these thorns of scholastic wisdom, there was any thing that had the appearance of fruit, it was crushed and blasted by the furious wranglings and disputes of the Scotists and Thomists, the Realists and Nominalists, whose clamours and contentions were unhappily heard in all the European academies.

XIV. The wretched and senseless manner of teaching theology in this century, may be learn-theology. ed from many books yet extant, which were wrote by the divines it produced, and which, in reality, have no other merit than their enormous bulk. The expositors of the holy scriptures were very few in number, during this century; and there were scarcely any of the Christian doctors that had a critical knowledge of the sacred oracles. This kind of knowledge was so rare, that, when LUTHER arose, there could not be found, even in the university of Paris, which was considered as the first and most famous of all the public schools of learning, a single person qualified to dispute with him, or oppose his doctrine, upon a scripture foundation. Any commentators, that were at this time to be found, were such, as, laying aside all attention to the true meaning and force of the words of scripture, which their profound ignorance of the original languages and of the rules of criticism rendered them incapable of investigating, gave a loose to their vain and irregular fancies, in the pursuit of mysterious significations. The greatest part of the public teachers belonged to these classes of divines, which we have formerly mentioned under the titles of Positivi and Sententiarii, who were extremely fond, the former of loading their accounts, both of the truths

CENT. truths and precepts of religion, with multiplied XVI. quotations and authorities from the writings of the ancient doctors; the latter of explaining the doctrines of the gospel by the rules of a subtile and intricate philosophy.

religious subjects.

XV. It must at the same time be observed, of debating that the divines of this century disputed with a good deal of freedom upon religious subjects, and even upon those that were looked upon as most essential to salvation. There were several points of doctrine, which had not been as yet fixed and determined by the authority of the church; nor did the pontifs, without some very urgent reason, restrain the right of private judgment, or force the consciences of men, except in those cases where doctrines were adopted that seemed detri-, mental to the supremacy of the apostolic see, or to the temporal interests of the sacerdotal and monastic orders. Hence it is, that we could mention many Christian doctors before LUTHER. who inculcated not only with impunity, but even with applause, the very same tenets that afterwards drew upon him such heavy accusations and such bitter reproaches. And it is beyond all doubt, that this great reformer might have propagated these opinions without any danger of molestation, had he not pointed his warm remonstrances against the opulence of Rome, the overgrown fortunes of the bishops, the majesty of the pontifs, and the towering ambition of the Dominicans.

The nature this time.

XVI. The public worship of the Deity was now of religious no more than a pompous round of external cereworship as monies, the greatest part of which were insignibrated at ficant and senseless, and much more adapted to dazzle the eyes than to touch the heart. number of those, who were at all qualified to administer public instruction to the people, was not very considerable; and their discourses, which contained

contained little else than fictitious reports of mi-C E N T. racles and prodigies, insipid fables, wretched quibbles, and illiterate jargon, deceived the multitude instead of instructing them. Several of these sermons are yet extant, which it is impossible to read without the highest indignation and contempt. Those who, on account of their gravity of manners, or their supposed superiority in point of wisdom and knowledge, held the most distinguished rank among these vain declaimers, had a common-place set of subjects allotted to them, on which they were constantly exercising the force of their lungs and the power of their eloquence. These subjects were, the authority of the holy mother church, and the obligations of obedience to her decisions; the virtues and merits of the saints, and their credit in the court of heaven; the dignity, glory, and love of the blessed Virgin; the efficacy of relics; the duty of adorning churches, and endowing monasteries; the necessity of good works (as that phrase was then understood) to salvation; the intolerable burnings of purgatory, and the utility of indulgences. Such were the subjects that employed the zeal and labours of the most eminent doctors of this century; and they were, indeed, the only subjects that could tend to fill the coffers of the good old mother church, and advance her temporal interests. A ministry, who would have taken it into their heads to inculcate the doctrines and precepts of the gospel, to exhibit the example of its divine author, and the efficacy of his mediation, as the most powerful motives to righteousness and virtue, and to represent the love of God and mankind as the great duties of the Christian life, such a ministry would have been very unprofitable servants to the church and to the papacy, however they might have promoted the cause of virtue and the salvation of souls.

XVII. The

XVL SECT. I. The corrupt and miserable condition of the pco-

CENT. XVII. The state of things, that we have been now describing, exhibits to our view the true causes of that incredible ignorance in religious matters, which reigned universally in all countries, and among all ranks and orders of men; an ignorance accompanied with the vilest forms of ple in gene- superstition, and the greatest corruption of manners. The clergy, who presided over the rites and ceremonies of the church, were far from shewing the least disposition to enlighten the ignorance or to check the superstition of the times; nay, instead of opposing, they rather nourished and promoted them, as conducive to their safety, and favourable to their interests. Nor was there more zeal shewn in stemming the torrent of immorality and licentiousness, than in dispelling the clouds of superstition and ignorance. For the prudence of the church had easily foreseen, that the traffic of indulgences could not but suffer from a diminution of the crimes and vices of mankind; and that, in proportion as virtue gained an ascendant upon the manners of the multitude, the profits arising from expiations, satisfactions, and such like ecclesiastical contrivances, must necessarily decrease.

A reformation in the church ardently desired.

XVIII. Such then was the dismal condition of the church. Its corruption was complete, and the abuses that it permitted were gone to the greatest height of enormity. But in proportion to the greatness of this corruption was the ardour and impatience with which all, who were endowed with any tolerable portion of solid learnning, genuine piety, or even good sense, desired to see the church reformed and purged from these shocking abuses. And the number of those who were affected in this manner was very considerable in all parts of the western world. The greatest part of them, indeed, were perhaps, over-moderate in their demands. They did not extend their views

so far as a change in the form of ecclesiastical CENT. government, a suppression of those doctrines, S x C T. I. which, however absurd, had acquired a high degree of credit by their antiquity, nor even to the abrogation of those rights and ceremonies, which had been multiplied in such an extravagant manner, to the great detriment of true religion and rational piety. All they aimed at was, to set limits to the overgrown power of the pontifs, to reform the corrupt manners of the clergy, and to prevent the frauds that were too commonly practised by that order of men; to dispel the ignorance and correct the errors of the blinded multitude, and to deliver them from the heavy and unsupportable burthens that were imposed upon them under religious pretexts. But as it was impossible to obtain any of these salutary purposes without the suppression of various absurd and impious opinions, from whence the grievances complained of sprung, and, indeed, without a general reformation of the religion that was publicly professed; so was this reformation supposed to be ardently, though silently, wished for, by all those who publicly demanded the reformation of the church in its head and in its members.

XIX. If any sparks of real piety subsisted under The Mys- . this despotic empire of superstition, they were only tick to be found among the Mystics. For this sect, renouncing the subtilty of the schools, the vain contentions of the learned, with all the acts and ceremonies of external worship, exhorted their followers to aim at nothing but internal sanctity of heart, and communion with God, the centre and source of holiness and perfection. Hence the Mystics were loved and respected by many persons, who had a scrious sense of religion, and were of a tender and devotional complexion. But as they were not entirely free from the reigning superstitions, but associated many vulgar errors with their practical

The dawn of a refor-

BREEPECS-

edly.

CENT. practical precepts and directions; and as their excessive passion for contemplation led them into SECT. I. many chimerical notions, and sometimes into a degree of fanaticism that approached to madness; more effectual succours than theirs were necessary to combat the inveterate errors of the times, and to bring about the reformation that was expected with such impatience.

## CHAP. II.

The History of the Reformation, from its first beginnings, to the Confession given in at Augsburg.

I. WHILE the Roman pontif slumbered in security at the head of the church, and mation rises saw nothing throughout the vast extent of his dominion but tranquillity and submission; and while the worthy and pious professors of genuine Christianity almost despaired of seeing that reformation on which their most ardent desires and expectations were bent; an obscure and inconsiderable person arose, on a sudden, in the year 1517, and laid the foundation of this long-expected change, by opposing, with undaunted resolution, his single force to the torrent of papal ambition and despotism. This extraordinary man was Martin Luther. a native of Aisleben, in Saxony, a monk of the Augustinian *Eremites*, who were one of the Mendicant orders, and, at the same time, professor of divinity in the academy that had been erected at Wittemberg, a few years before this period, by Frederic the Wise. The papal chair was, at this time, filled by Leo X. MAXIMILIAN I. a prince of the house of Austria, was king of the Romans, and emperor of Germany; and FREDERIC, already mentioned, elector of Saxony.

The bold efforts of this new adversary of the pon-C EN T. tifs were honoured with the applauses of many, SECT. I. but few or none entertained hopes of their success. It seemed scarcely possible that this puny David could hurt a Goliah, whom so many heroes had

opposed in vain.

II. None of the qualities or talents that dis-Luther. tinguished Luther were of a common or ordinary His genius was truly great and unparalkind. leled; his memory vast and tenacious; his patience in supporting trials, difficulties, and labour incredible, his magnanimity invincible, and independent on the vicissitudes of human affairs; and his learning most extensive, considering the age in which he lived. All this will be acknowledged, even by his enemies, at least by such of them as are not totally blinded by a spirit of partiality and faction. He was deeply versed in the theology and philosophy that were in vogue in the schools during this century, and he taught them both with the greatest reputation and success in the academy of Wittemberg. As a philosopher, he embraced the doctrine of the Nominalists, which was the system adopted by his order; while, in divinity, he followed chiefly the sentiments of Augustin; but in both he preferred the decisions of Scripture, and the dictates of right reason before the authority and opinions of fallible men. It would be equally rash and absurd to represent this great man as exempt from error, and free from infirmities and defects; yet, if we except the contagious effects of the age in which he lived, and of the religion in which he had been brought up, we shall perhaps find but a few things in his character that render him liable to reproach [m].

III. The

<sup>[</sup>m] The writers who have given any circumstantial account of Luther, and his transactions are accurately enumerated by Jo. Alb.

CENT. XVI. SECT. I. Indulgen. ces preached up by

III. The first opportunity that this great man had of unfolding to the view of a blinded and deluded age; the truth which had struck his astonished sight, was offered by a Dominican, whose name was John Tetzel [n]. This bold and enter-John 1et-zel in 1517 prising monk had been chosen on account of his uncommon impudence, by Albert, archbishop of Mentz and Magdeburg, to preach and proclaim, in Germany, those famous indulgences of Leo X. which administered the remission of all sins, past, present, and to come, however enormous their nature, to those who were rich enough to purchase them. The frontless monk executed this iniquitous commission not only with matchless insolence, indecency [o] and fraud, but even carried his impiety so far as to derogate from the all-sufficient power and influence of the merits of Christ. At this, Luther, unable to smother his just indigna-, tion, raised his warning voice, and, in ninety-five propositions, maintained publicly at Wittemberg, on the 30th of September, in the year 1517, censured the extravagant extortion of these questors, and plainly pointed out the Roman pontif as a partaker of their guilt, since he suffered the people to be seduced, by such delusions, from placing

> Jo. Alb. Fabricius, in his Centifolium Lutheranum; the first part of which was published at Hamburg in the year 1728,

and the second in 1730, in 8vo.

[n] The historians who have particularly mentioned Tetzel, and his odious method of deluding the multitude, are enumerated in the work quoted in the preceding note, part I. p. 47. part II. p. 530.—What is said of this vile deceiver by Echard and Quetif, in the Scriptores Ordin. Predicator. tom. ii. p. 40. discovers the blindest zeal and the meanest partiality.

[0] In describing the efficacy of these indulgences, Tetzel said, among other enormities, that " even had any one ravished the mother of God, he (Tetzel) had wherewithal to efface his guilt." He also boasted, that " he had saved more souls from hell by these indulgences, than St Peter had con-

verted to Christianity by his preaching."

placing their principal con fidence in Christ, the c E N T. only proper object of their trust. This was the S Z C T. I. commencement and foundation of that memorable rupture and revolution in the church, which humbled the grandeur of the lordly pontifs, and eclipsed so great a part of their glory [p].

invented and propagated by some late authors, in order to make Luther's zealous opposition to the publication of *Indulgences* appear to be the effect of selfish and ignoble motives. It may not, therefore, be improper to set that in a true light; not that the cause of the reformation (which must stand by its own intrinsic dignity, and is in no ways affected by the views or characters of its instruments) can derive any strength from this inquiry; but as it may tend to vindicate the personal character of a man, who has done eminent service to the cause of religion.

Mr Hume, in his History of the Reign of Henry VIII. has thought proper to repeat what the enemies of the reformation and some of its dubious or ill-informed friends, have advanced, with respect to the motives that engaged Luther to oppose the doctrine of indulgences. This elegant and per-suasive historian tells us, that the "Austin friars had usually been employed in Saxony to preach indulgences, and from this trust had derived both profit and consideration; that Arcemboldi gave this occupation to the Dominicans \*; that Martin Luther, an Austin friar, professor in the university of Wittemberg, resenting the affront put upon bis Order, began to preach against the abuses that were committed in the sale of indulgences, and, being provoked by opposition, proceeded even to decry indulgences themselves +." It were to be wished, that Mr. Hume's candour had engaged him to examine this accusation better, before he had ventured to repeat it. For, in the first place, it is. not true, that the Austin friars bad been usually employed in Saxony to preach indulgences. It is well known, that the commission had been offered alternately, and sometimes jointly, to all the Mendicants, whether Austin friars, Dominicans, Franciscans, or Carmelites. Nav, from the year 1229, that lucrative commission was principally entrusted with the Dominicans 1; and, in the records which relate to indulgences, we raiely

<sup>\*</sup> Hume's History of England, under the House of Tudor, vol. i. p. 119. 1 Id- ib. p. 120.

See Weismanni, Memorabilia Historiæ Sacræ N. T. p. 10\_1. 1115.

CENT. IV. This debate between LUTHER and TETZEL XVI. was, at first, a matter of no great moment, and might

The true state of the debate between Luther and Tetzel.

rarely meet with the name of an Austin friar, and not one single act by which it appears, that the Roman pontif ever named the friars of that order to the office under consideration. More particularly it is remarkable, that for half a century before Lûther, (i. e. from 1450 to 1517), during which period indulgences were sold with the most scandalous marks of avaricious extortion and impudence, we scarcely meet with the name of an Austin Friar employed in that service; if we except a monk named Palzius, who was no more than an underling of the papal questor Raymond Peraldus; so far is it from being true, that the Augustin order were exclusively, or even usually employed in that service \*. Mr Hume has built his assertion upon the sole authority of a single expression of Paul Sarpi, which has been abundantly refuted by De Priero, Pallavicini, and Graweson, the mortal enemies of Luther.—But it may be alleged, that, even supposing it was not usual, to employ the Augustin friars alone in the propagation of indulgences, yet Luther might be offended at seeing such an important commission given to the Dominicans exclusively, and that, consequently, this was his motive in opposing the propagation of indulgences. To shew the injustice of this allegation, I observe,

Secondly, That in the time of Luther, the preaching of indulgences was become such an odious and unpopular matter, that it is far from being probable, that Luther would have been solicitous about obtaining such a commission, either for himself or for his order. The princes of Europe, with many bishops, and multitudes of learned and pious men, had opened their eyes upon the turpitude of this infamous traffic; and even the Franciscans and dominicans, towards the conclusion of the fifteenth century opposed it publicly, both in their discourses and in their writings +. Nay more, the very commission which is supposed to have excited the envy of Luther, was offered by Leo to the general of the Franciscans, and was refused both by him and his order 1, who gave it over entirely to Albert, bishop of Mentz and Magdeburg. It is then to be imagned, that either Luther, or the other Austin friars aspired after a commission of which the Franciscans were ashamed? Besides, it is a mistake to assirm, that this office was given to

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# See Walch, loc. cit. p. 371.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> See Harpii Dissertat. de Nonnullis Indulgentiarum, Sæe. xiv. et xv. Quæstoribus. p. 384. 387.

See Walch. opp. Luther, tom. xv. p. 114. 283. 312. 349.—Seckendorf, Hist. Lutheranismi, lib. i. sees. vi p. 13.

hight have been terminated with the utmost faci-CEN TI lity, had LEO X. been disposed to follow the heal-S = CT. I.

the Dominicans in general; since it was given to TETZEL alone, an individual member of that order, who had been noto-

rious for his profligacy, barbarity, and extortion.

But that neither resentment nor envy were the motives that led LUTHER to oppose the doctrine and publication of indulgences, will appear with the utmost evidence, if we consider, in the sbird place,—That he was never accused of any such motives, either in the edicts of the pontifs of his time, or amidst the other reproaches of the contemporary writers, who defended the cause of Rome, and who were far from being sparing of their invectives and calumnies. All the contemporary adversaries of LUTHER are absolutely silent on this head. From the year 1517 to 1546. when the dispute about indulgences was carried on with the greatest warmth and animosity, not one writer ever ventured to reproach LUTHER with these ignoble motives of epposition now under consideration. I speak not of Erasmus, Sleidan, De Thou, Guicciardini, and others, whose testimony might be perhaps suspected of partiality in his favour, but I speak of Cajetan, Hogstrat, De Prierio, Emser, and even the infamous John Tetzel, whom Luther opposed with such vehemence and bitterness. Even Cochlæus was silent on this head during the life of Luther; though, after the death of that great reformer, he broached the calumny I am here refuting. But ench was the scandalous character of this man, who was notorious for fraud, calumny, lying, and their sister vices +. that Pallavicini, Bossaet, and other enemies of Luther, were ashamed to make use either of his name or testimony. Now, may it not be fairly presumed, that the contemporaries of Luther were better judges of his character, and the principles from which he acted, than those who lived in after times? Can it be, imagined, that motives to action, which escaped the prying eyes of Luther's contemporaries, should have discovered themselves to us, who live at such a distance of time from the scene of action, to M. Bossuet, to Mr Hume, and to other abettors of this ill contrived and foolish story. Either there are no rules of moral evidence, or Mr Hume's assertion is entirely groundless.

I might add many other considerations to shew the unreasonableness of supposing that Luther exposed himself to the rage of the Roman pontif, to the persecutions of an exaspes

Sleidan, De Statu Rel et Reip. in Dedic. Epist. ad August. Elector.
Vol. IV. D rated

CENTing method which common prudence must have naturally pointed out on such an occasion. For, after all, this was no more than a private dispute between two monks, concerning the extent of the pope's power with respect to the remission of sin. Luther confessed that the Roman pontif was clothed with the power of remitting the human punishments inflicted upon transgressors, i. e. the punishments denounced by the church, and its visible head the bishop of Rome; but he strenuously denied that his power extended to the remission of the divine punishments allotted to offenders, either in this present, or in a future state; affirming on the contrary, that these punishments could only be removed by the merits of Christ, or by voluntary acts of mortification and penance undertaken and performed by the transgressor. The doctrine of Tetzel, was, indeed, directly opposite to the sentiments of Lu-THER; for this senseless or designing monk asserted, that all punishments, present and future, human and divine, were submitted to the authority of the Roman pontif, and came within the reach of his absolving power. This matter had often been debated before the present period; but the popes had always been prudent enough to leave it undecided. These debates, however, being sometimes treated with neglect, and at others carried on without wisdom, the seeds of discord gained imperceptibly new accessions of strength and vigour, and from small beginnings produced, at length, revolutions and events of the most momentous nature.

V. The

rated clergy, to the severity of such a potent and despotic prince as CHARLES V. to death itself, and that from a principle of avarice and ambition. But I have said enough to satisfy every candid mind.

V. The sentiments of Luther were received OENT. with applause by the greatest part of Germany, Sect. I. which had long groaned under the avarice of the pontifs, and the extortions of their tax-gatherers, The adverand had murmured grievously against the various Luther and stratagems that were daily put in practice, with the pathe most frontless impudence, to fleece the rich, Texas of and to grind the faces of the poor. But the votaries of Rome were filled with horror, when they were informed of the opinions propagated by the Saxon reformer; more especially the Dominicans, who looked upon their order as insulted and attacked in the person of TETZEL. The alarm of controversy was therefore sounded, and TETZEL himself appeared immediately in the field against LUTHER, whose sentiments he pretended to refute in two academical discourses, which he pronounced on occasion of his promotion to the degree of doctor in divinity. In the year following (1518) two famous Dominicans, Sylvester DE PRIERIO and HOGSTRAT, the former a native of Italy, and the latter a German, rose up also against the adventurous reformer, and attacked him at Cologn with the utmost vehemence and ardour. Their example was soon followed by another formidable champion, named Eckius, a celebrated professor of divinity at Ingolstadt, and one of the most zealous supporters of the Dominican order. Luther stood firm against these united adversaries, and was neither vanquished by their arguments, nor daunted by their talents and reputation; but answered their objections and refuted their reasonings with the greatest strength of evidence, and a becoming spirit of resolution and perseverance. At the same time, however, he addressed himself by letters, written in the most submissive and respectful terms, to the Roman pontif and to several of the bishops, shewing them the uprightness of his intentions, as

VI. At first, LEO X. beheld this controversy

CENT well as the justice of his cause, and declaring his S x c T. I. readiness to change his sentiments, as soon as he should see them fairly proved to be erroneous.

A conferajetan at Augsburg.

between with indifference and contempt; but, being in-Luther and formed by the emperor Maximilian 1. not only of its importance, but also of the fatal divisions it was likely to produce in Germany, he summoned LUTHER to appear before him at Rome, and there to plead the cause which he had undertaken to maintain: This papal summons was superseded by Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony, who pretended, that the cause of LUTHER belonged to the jurisdiction of a German tribunal, and that it was to be decided by the ecclesiastical laws of the empire. The pontif yielded to the remonstrances of this prudent and magnanimous prince, and ordered LUTHER to justify his intentions and doc-trines before cardinal CAJETAN, who was, at this time, legate at the diet of Augsburg. In this first step the court of Rome gave a specimen of that temerity and imprudence with which all its negociations, in this weighty affair, were afterwards conducted. For, instead of reconciling, nothing could tend more to inflame matters than the choice of CAJETAN, a Dominican, and, consequently, the declared enemy of LUTHER, and friend of TETZEL, as judge and arbitrator in this nice and perilous controversy.

The issue

VII. LUTHER, however, repaired to Augsburg, of this conin the month of October 1518, and conferred, at three different meetings, with CAJETAN himself [q], concerning the points in debate. But had he even been disposed to yield to the court of Rome, this imperious legate was, of all others, the most improper to encourage him in the execution

<sup>[9]</sup> There is a large account of this cardinal given by Quetif and Rehard, Scriptor. Ordin. Predicator. tom. ii. p. 14.

cution of such a purpose. The high spirit of CENT. LUTHER was not to be tamed by the arrogant dic-5 x c v. I. tates of mere authority; such, however, were the only methods of persuasion employed by the haughty cardinal. He, in an overbearing tone, desired Luther to renounce his opinions, without even attempting to prove them erroneous, and insisted, with importunity, on his confessing humbly his fault, and submitting respectfully to •the judgment of the Roman pontif [r]. The Saxon reformer could not think of yielding to terms so unreasonable in themselves and so despotically proposed; so that the conferences were absolutely without effect. For LUTHER, finding his adversary and judge inaccessible to reason and argument, left Augsburg all of a sudden, after having appealed from the present decisions of the pontif to those which he should pronounce, when better informed; and, in this step, he seemed yet to respect the dignity and authority of the bishop of Rome [s]. But Leo X. on the other hand let loose the reins to ambition and despotism, and carried things to the utmost extremity; for, in the month of November, this same year, he published a special edict, commanding his spiritual subjects to

[r] The imperious and imprudent manner in which Cajetan behaved towards Luther was highly disapproved of even at the court of Rome, as appears, among other testimonies, from Paulo Sarpi's History of the Council of Trent, book I. p. 22. The conduct of Cajetan is defended by Echard, in his Scriptor. Ord. Pradicator. tom. ii. p. 15. but with little prudence, and less argument. The truth of the matter is, that the court of Rome, and its unthinking sovereign, were not less culpable than Cajetan in the whole of this transaction. Since they might easily foresee, that a Dominican legate was of all others the most unlikely to treat Luther with moderation and impartiality, and consequently the most improper to reconcile matters.

[s] See B. Christ. Frid. Borneri Diss. de Collequio Lutheri eum Cajetano. Leips. 1722, in 4to.—Val. Ern. Loscheri Acta et Documenta Reformat. tom. ii. cap. xi. p. 435. opp. Lutheri,

tom. xxiv. p. 409.

CENT. to acknowledge his power of delivering from all the SECT. I. punishments due to sin and trangression of every kind. As soon as LUTHER received information of this inconsiderate and violent measure, he perceived, plainly, that it would be impossible for him to bring the court of Rome to any reasonable terms; he therefore repaired to Wittemburg, and, on the 28th of November, appealed from the pontif to a general council.

The transactions of Miltitz.

All the projects of reconciliacerted in 7519.

VIII. In the mean time, the Roman pontif became sensible of the imprudence he had been guilty of inentrusting Cajeran with such a commission, and endeavoured to mend the matter by employing a man of more candour and impartiality, and better acquainted with business, in order tion discon-to suppress the rebellion of Luther, and to engage that reformer to submission and obedience, This new legate was Charles Miltitz, a Saxon knight, who belonged to the court of LEO X. and whose lay character exposed him less to the prejudices that arise from a spirit of party, than if he had been clothed with the splendid purple, or the monastic frock. He was also a person of great prudence, penetration, and dexterity, and every way qualified for the execution of such a nice and critical commission as this was. LEO, therefore, sent him into Saxony to present to Fre-DERICK the golden consecrated rose (which the pontifs are used to bestow, as a peculiar mark of distinction, on those princes, for whom they have, or think proper to profess, an uncommon friendship and esteem), and to treat with Luther, not only about finishing his controversy with TETZEL, but also concerning the methods of bringing about a reconciliation between him and the Court of Rome. Nor, indeed, were the negociations of this prudent minister entirely unsuccessful; for, in his first conference with LUTHER, at Altenburg, in the year 1519, he carried matters so far as to per-

suade

suade him to write a submissive letter to Leo X. CENT. promising to observe a profound silence upon the SECT. [. matters in debate, provided that the same obligation should be imposed upon his adversaries. This same year, in the month of October, MIL-TITZ had a second conference with LUTHER in the castle of Leibenwerd, and a third the year following, at Lichtenberg [t]. These meetings, which were reciprocally conducted with moderation and decency, gave great hopes of an approaching reconciliation; nor were these hopes ill founded [u]. But the violent proceedings of the enemies of Luther, and the arrogant spirit, as well as unaccountable imprudence, of the court of Rome blasted these fair expectations, and kindled anew the flames of discord.

[w] IX. It was sufficient barely to mention The nature of the conthe measures taken by Cajetan to draw Luther ferences beanew under the papal yoke; because these mea-tween Milsures were, indeed, nothing more than the wild Luther. suggestions of superstition and tyranny, maintained and avowed with the most frontless impudence. A man, who began by commanding the reformer to renounce his errors, to believe, and that upon the dictates of mere authority, that one drop of Christ's blood, being sufficient to redeem the whole

[1] See B. CHRIST. FRID. B. The records relating to the embassy of MILTITZ, were first published by ERN. SALOMON CYPRIANUS, in Addic. ad WILH. ERN. TENZELLII Histor. Reforma!. tom. i. ii. As also by VAL. ERN. LOSCHERUS, in his Acta Reformat. tom. ii. c. xvi. and tom. iii. cap. ii.

[u] In the year 1519, LEO X. wrote to LUTHER in the softest and most pacific terms. From this remarkable letter, (which was published in the year 1742, by Loscherus, in a German work entitled Unschuld Nachrist) it appears, that at the court of Rome they looked upon a reconciliation between LUTHER and the pontif as certain and near at hand,

. W [w] This whole ninth section is added to Dr MOSHEIM's work by the translator, who thought that this part of LUTTIER's history deserved to be related in a more circumstantial manner,

than it is in the original.

CIENT. whole buman race, the remaining quantity, that way BECT. I shed in the garden and upon the cross, was left as a legacy to the church, to be a treasure from whence indulgences were to be drawn and administered by the Roman pontiff [x]: such a man was not to be reasoned with. But MILTITZ proceeded in quite another manner, and his conferences with the Saxon reformer are worthy of attention. He was ordered, indeed, to demand of the elector, that he would either oblige Luther to renounce the doctrines he had hitherto maintained, or, that he would withdraw from him his protection and favour. But, perceiving that he was received by the elector with a degree of coldness that bordered upon contempt, and that LUTHER's credit and cause were too far advanced to be destroyed by the efforts of mere authority, he had recourse to gentler methods. He loaded TETZEL with the bitterest reproaches, on account of the irregular and superstitious means he had employed for promoting the sale of indulgences, and attributed to this miserable wretch all the abuses that LUTHER had complained of. TETZEL, on the other hand, burthened with the iniquities of Rome, tormented with a consciousness of his own injustice and extortions, stung with the opprobrious censures of the new legate, and seeing himself equally despised and abhorred by both parties, died of grief and despair [7]. This incendiary being sacrificed 'as a victim to cover the Roman pontif from reproach,

> pressions of Cajetan, which he borrowed from one of the Decresals of Clement VI. called (and that justly for more than one reason) Extravagants.

> der which Tetzel laboured, that he wrote him a pathetic letter of consolation, which, however, produced no effect. His infamy was perpetuated by a picture, placed in the church of Piana, in which he is represented sitting on an ass, and selling indulgeaces.

proach, Miltitz entered into a particular con-C-E-N T. versation with Luther, at Altenburg, and, with-s ct. I. out pretending to justify the scandalous traffic in question, required only, that he would acknowledge the four following things: 1st, That the " people had been seduced by false notions of " indulgences: 2dly, That he (LUTHER) had " been the cause of that seduction, by represent-" ing indulgences as much more heinous than " they really were: 3dly, That the odious con-"duct of TETZEL alone had given occasion to "these representations: and 4thly, That, though " the avarice of Albert, archbishop of Menta, " had set on TETZEL, yet that this rapacious tax-" gatherer had exceeded by far the bounds of his "commission." These proposals were accompanied with many soothing words, with pompous encomiums on Luther's character, capacity, and talents, and with the softest and most pathetic expostulations in favour of union and concord in an afflicted and divided church; all which Mu-TITZ joined together with the greatest dexterity and address, in order to touch and disarm the Saxon reformer. Nor were his mild and insinuating methods of negotiating without effect; and it was upon this occasion that Luther made submissions which shewed that his views were not, as yet, very extensive, his former prejudices entirely expelled, or his reforming principles steadily fixed. For he not only offered to observe a profound silence for the future with respect to indulgences, provided the same condition were imposed on his adversaries; he went much farther; he proposed writing an humble and submissive letter to the pope, acknowledging that he had carried his zeal and animosity too far; and such a letter he wrote some time atter the conference at Altenburg [z.] He even consented to publish a circular

[2] This letter was dated the 13th of March, 1519, a. bout two months after the conference of Altenburg.

CENT circular letter, exhorting all his disciples and fol-XVI. lowers to reverence and obey the dictates of the holy Roman church. He declared that his only intentions, in the writings he had composed, was to brand with infamy those emissaries who abused its authority, and employed its protection as a mask to cover their abominable and impious frauds. It is true, indeed, that amidst those weak submissions which the impartial demands of historical truth oblige us to relate, there was, properly speaking, no retraction of his former tenets, nor the smallest degree of respect shewn to the infamous traffic of indulgences. Nevertheless, the pretended majesty of the Roman church, and the authority of the Roman pontif, were treated by LUTHER in this transaction, and in his letter to Leo, in a manner that could not naturally have been expected from a man who had already appealed from the pope to a general council.

Had the court of Rome been prudent enough to have accepted of the submission made by LUTHER, they would almost have nipped in the bud the cause of the reformation, or would, at least, have considerably retarded its growth and progress. Having gained over the head, the members would, with greater facility, have been reduced to obedience. But the flaming and excessive zeal of some inconsiderate bigots renewed, happily for the truth, the divisions, which were so near being healed, and, by animating both LUTHER and his followers to look deeper into the enormities that prevailed in the papal hierarchy, promoted the principles, and augmented the spirit, which produced, at length, the blessed [a] reformation.

X. One

WF [a] See, for an ample account of LUTHER's conferences with MILTITZ, the incomparable work of SECKENDORF, intit-led, Commentar. Histor. Apologet. de Lutheranismo, sive de Reformatione Religionis, &c. in which the facts relating to LUTHER and the Reformation are deduced from the most precious and authentic

X. One of the circumstances that contributed c E N T. principally, at least by its consequences, to render SECT. I. the embassy of MILTITZ ineffectual for the restoration of peace, was a famous controversy of an The disincidental nature that was carried on at Leipsic, putes at some weeks successively, in the year 1519 [b]. the year A doctor named Eckius, who was one of the most tween Eceminent and zealous champions in the papalkius and cause happened to differ widely from Carlo-Cralostadt. STADT, the colleague and companion of LUTHER, in his sentiments concerning Free-will. The result of this variety in opinion was easy to be foreseen. The military genius of our ancestors had so far infected the schools of learning, that differences in points of religion or literature, when they grew to a certain degree of warmth and animosity, were decided, like the quarrels of valiant knights, by a single combat. Some famous university was pitched upon as the field of battle, while the rector and professors beheld the contest, and proclaimed the victory. Eckius, therefore, in compliance with the spirit of this fighting age, challenged Carlostadt, and even Luther himself, against whom he had already drawn his pen, to try the force of his theological arms. challenge was accepted, the day appointed, and the three champions appeared in the field. first conslict was between Carlostad's and Eckius

suthentic manuscripts and records, contained in the library of Saxe Gosba, and in other learned and princely collections, and in which the frauds and falsehoods of Maimbourg's History of Lutheranism are fully detected and refuted.—As to Miltitz, his fate was unhappy. His moderation (which nothing but the blind zeal of some furious monks could have hindered from being eminently serviceable to the cause of Rome) was represented by Eckius, as something worse than indifference about the success of his commission; and, after several marks of neglect received from the pontif, he had the misfortune to lose his life in passing the Rhine at Menta.

[b] These disputes commenced on the 25th of June, and end-

ed on the 15th of July following.

CIENT. Eckius concerning the powers and freedom of Sec. 1. the human will [c]; it was carried on in the castle of Pleissenburg, in presence of a numerous and splendid audience, and was followed by a dispute between Luther and Eckius concerning the authority and supremacy of the Roman pontif. This latter controversy, which the present situation of affairs rendered singularly nice and critical, was left undecided. Hoffman, at that time rector of the university of Leipsic, and who had been also appointed judge of the arguments alleged on both sides, refused to declare to whom the victory belonged; so that the decision of this matter was referred to the universities of Paris and Erfurt [d]. In the mean time, one of the immediate effects of this dispute was a visible increase of the bitterness and enmity which Eckius had conceived against Luther; for from this very period he breathed nothing but fury against the Saxon reformer [e], whom he marked out as a

in a philosophical, but in a theological sense. It was rather a dispute concerning power than concerning liberty. Carlostade maintained, that, since the fall of man, our natural liberty is not strong enough to conduct us to what is good, without the intervention of divine grace. Eckius asserted, on the contrary, that our natural liberty co-operated with divine grace, and that it was in the power of man to consent to the divine impulse, or to resist it. The former attributed all to God; the latter divided the merit of virtue between God and the creature. The modern Lutherons have almost universally abandoned the sentiments of Carlostadt.

[d] There is an ample account of this dispute at Leipsie given by Val. Ern. Loscherus, in his Acta et Documenta Re-

formationis, tom. iii. c. vii. p. 203.

was not in his favour. The victor, in any combat, is generally too full of satisfaction and self-complacency, to feel the emotions of fury and vengeance, which seldom arise but from disappointment and defeat. There is even an insolent kind of clemency that arises from an eminent and palpable superiority. This indeed Eckius had no opportunity of exercising. Luther

over.

victim to his vengeance, without considering, CENT.

that the measures he took for the destruction of XVI.

LUTHER, must have a most pernicious influence

upon the cause of the Roman pontif, by fomenting the present divisions, and thus contributing to the progress of the reformation, as was really the case [e].

XI. Among the spectators of this ecclesiastical Philip Mecombat was Philip Melancthon, at that time, professor of Greek at Wittemberg, who had not, as yet, been involved in these divisions (as indeed the mildness of his temper and his elegant taste for polite literature rendered him averse from disputes of this nature), though he was the intimate friend of Luther, and approved his design of delivering the pure and primitive science of theology from the darkness and subtilty of scholastic jargon [f]. As this eminent man was one of those whom this dispute with Eckius convinced of the excellence of Luther's cause; as he was, more-

Luther demonstrated, in this conference, that the church of Rosse, in the earlier ages, had never been acknowledged as superior to other churches, and combated the pretensions of that church and its bishop, from the testimony of scripture, the authority of the fathers, and the best ecclesiastical historians, and even from the decrees of the council of Nice; while all the arguments of Eckius were derived from the spurious and insipid Decretals, which were scarcely of 400 years standing. See Seckendorff's History of Lutheranism.

EF [e] It may be observed here, that, before Luther's attack upon the store-house of indulgences; ECRIUS was his intimate friend. ECRIUS must certainly have been uncommonly unworthy, since even the mild and gentle MELANCTHON represents him as an inhuman persecutor, a sophist, and a knave, who maintained doctrines contrary to his belief, and against his conscience. See the learned Dr Jortin's Life of Erasmus, vol. ii. p. 713; see also Vitus's account of the death of Eckius in Seckendorff, lib. iii. p. 468; and in the Scholia ad Indicem 1 Hist. of the same book, No. XXIII.

[f] See Melancthon's Letter concerning the conference at Liisie, in Loscher's Acta et Documenta Reformationis tom. iii. app. viiii.p. 275; us also in the Wittemberg edition of Luther's works, vol. i. p. 336.

CENT over, one of the illustrious and respectable instru-SECT. I. ments of the Reformation; it may not be improper to give some account here of the talents and virtues that have rendered his name immortal, His greatest enemies have borne testimony to his merit. They have been forced to acknowledge, that the annals of antiquity exhibit very few worthies that may be compared with him; whether we consider the extent of his knowledge in things human and divine, the fertility and elegance of his genius, the facility and quickness of his comprehension, or the uninterrupted industry that attended his learned and theological labours. rendered to philosophy and the liberal arts the same eminent service that Luther had done to religion, by purging them from the dross with which they had been corrupted, and by recommending them, in a powerful and persuasive manner, to the study of the Germans. He had the rare talent of discerning truth in all its most intricate connexious and combinations, of comprehending at once the most abstract notions, and expressing them with the utmost perspicuity, and ease. And he applied this happy talent in religious disquisitions with such unparalleled success, that it may safely be affirmed, that the cause of true Christianity derived from the learning and genius of Melancition more signal advantages, and a more effectual support, than it received from any of the other doctors of the age. His love of peace and concord, which was partly owing to the sweetness of his natural temper, made him desire with ardour that a reformation might be effected without producing a schism in the church, and that the external communion of the contending parties might be preserved uninterrupted and entire. This spirit of mildness and charity, carried perhaps too far, led him sometimes to make concessions that were neither consistent with prudence.

dence nor advantageous to the cause in which he C E N T. was engaged. It is however certain, that he gave SECT. I. no quarter to those more dangerous and momentous errors that reigned in the church of Rome; but maintained on the contrary that their extirpation was essentially necessary, in order to the restoration of true religion. In the natural complexion of this great man there was something soft, timorous and yielding. Hence arose a certain diffidence of himself, that not only made him examine things with the greatest attention and care, before he resolved upon any measure, but also filled him with uneasy apprehensions where there was no danger, and made him fear even things that, in reality, could never happen. And yet on the other hand, when the hour of real danger approached, when things bore a formidable aspect, and the cause of religion was in imminent peril, then this timorous man was converted, all at once, into an intrepid hero looked danger in the face with unshaken constancy, and opposed his adversaries with invincible fortitude. All this shews, that the force of truth and the power of principle had diminished the weaknesses and defects of Melancthon's natural character without entirely removing them. Had his fortitude been more uniform and steady, his desire of reconciling all interests and pleasing all parties less vehement and excessive, his triumph over the superstitions imbibed in his infancy more complete [8], he must deservedly have been considered as one of the greatest among men [b].

XII. While

EF [g] By this, no doubt, Dr Mosheim means the credulity this great man discovered with respect to prodigies and dreams, and his having been somewhat addicted to the pretended science of astrology. See Schelhornii Amanit. Hist. Eceles. et Lit. vol. ii. p. 609.

<sup>[</sup>b] We have a Life of MELANCTHON, written by JOACHIM C. VIRARIUS, which has already gone through several editions

## The History of the Reformation.

CFNT. formation in Switzerland

XII. While the credit and authority of the SECT. 1. Roman pontif were thus upon the decline in Germany, they received a mortal wound in The origin Switzerland from Ulric Zuingle, a canon of Zurich, whose extensive learning and uncommon sagacity were accompanied, with the most heroic intrepidity and resolution [i]. It must even be acknowledged [k], that this eminent man had perceived some rays of the truth before LUTHER came to an open rupture with the church of Rome

> But a more accurate account of this illustrious reformer, composed by a pradent, impartial, and well-informed biographer, as also a complete collection of his Works, would be

an inestimable present to the republic of letters.

The translator has added to the portrait of Zuingle, the quality of beroic intrepidity, because it was a predominant and remarkable part of the character of this illustrious reformer, whose learning and fortitude, tempered by the greatest moderation, rendered him, perhaps beyond comparison the bright-

est ornament of the protestant cause.

[k] Our learned historian does not seem to acknowledge this with pleasure, as the Germans and Swiss contend about the honour of having given the first overtures towards the Reformation. If, however, truth has obliged him to make this acknowledgement, he has accompanied it with some modifications that are more artful than accurate. He says, " that Zuingle had perceived some rays of the truth before Luther had come to an open rupture," &c. to make us imagine, that Luther might have seen the truth long before that rupture happened, and consequently as soon as Zuingle. But it is well known, that the latter, from his early years, had been shocked at several of the superstitious practices of the church of Rome: that so early as the year 1516 1, he had begun to explain the scriptures to the people, and to censure, though with great prudence and moderation, the errors of a corrupt church; and that he had very noble and extensive ideas of a general reformation, at the very time that Luther retained almost the whole system of popery, indulgences excepted. Luther, proceeded very slowly to that exemption from the prejudices of education, which Zuingle, by the force of an adventurous genious, and an uncommon degree' of knowledge and penetration, easily got rid of.

Rushart, Hist. de la Resormation en Susse. Zuinglii opp. tom. i. p. 7. Nouveau Diction. vol. iv. p. 866. Ducand, Hist. du xvi. Siecle, tom. ii. p. 8. &c. jurieu, Apologie pour les Reformateurs, &c. partie I. p. 119.

Rome: He was however afterwards still farther C E N T' animated by the example, and instructed by the second writings of the Saxon reformer; and thus his zeal for the good cause acquired new strength and vigour. For he not only explained the sacred writings in his public discourses to the people [1], but also gave in the year 1519, a signal proof of his: courage, by opposing, with the greatest repolution and success, the ministry of a certain L talian monk, whose name was Samson, and who was carrying on, in Switzerland, the impious traffic of Indulgences with the same impudence that TETZEL had done in Germany [m]. This was the first remarkable event that prepared the way for the reformation among the Helvetic cantons. In process of time, Zuingle pursued with steadiness and resolution the design that he had begun with such courage and success. His noble efforts were seconded by some other learned men, educated in Germany, who became his colleagues and the companions of his labours, and who jointly with Frim succeeded so far in removing the credulity of a deluded people, that the pope's supremacy was rejected and denied in the greatest part of Switzerland. It is indeed to be observed, that Zuin-LE did not always use the same methods of conversion that were employed by LUTHER; nor, upon par-

ceding note, and from the most authentic records of history, that Zuingle had explained the scriptures to the people, and called in question the authority and supremacy of the pope before the name of Luther was known in Switzerland. Besides, instead of receiving instruction from the German reformer, he was much his superior in learning, capacity, and judgment, and was much fitter to be his master than his disciple, as the four volumes in folio, we have of his works abundantly testify.

[m] See Jo. Henr. Hottingeri Hist. Eccles. Heivet. tom. ii. lib. vi. p. 28.—Ruchat, Histoire de la Reformation en Suisse, tom. i. livr. i. p. 4—66.——Gerdes, Histor. Renovati Evange-

li, tom. ii. p. 228. Vol. 1V.

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C E N T ticular occasions, did he discountenance the use of S r C T. I. violent measures against such as adhered with obstinacy to the superstitions of their ancestors. He is also said to have attributed to the civil magistrate, such an extensive power in ecclesiastical affairs, as is quite inconsistent with the essence and genius of religion. But, upon the whole, even envy itself must acknowledge, that his intentions were upright, and his designs worthy of the highest approbation.

Luther is ·excommu+ nicated by the pope, in 1510.

XIII. In the mean time, the religious dissensions in Germany increased, instead of diminishing. For while MILTITZ was treating with LUTHER in Saxony, in such a mild and prudent manner as offered the fairest prospect of an approaching accommodation, Eckius, inflamed with resentment and fury on account of his defeat at Leipsic, repaired with the utmost precipitation to Rome, to accomplish, as he imagined, the ruin of LUTHER. There, entering into a league with the Dominicans, who were in high credit at the papal court, and more especially with their two zealous patrons, De Prierio and Cajetan, he earnestly entreated LEO X. to level the thunder of his anathemas at the head of LUTHER, and to exclude him from the communion of the church. The Dominicans, desirous of revenging the affront that, in their opinion, their whole order had received by Lu-THER's treatment of their brother TETZEL, and their patron Cajetan, seconded the furious efforts of Eckius against the Saxon reformer, and used their utmost endeavours to have his request granted. The pontif, overcome by the importunity of these pernicious counsellors, imprudently issued [n] out a bull against Luther, dated the 15th of June, 1520,

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<sup>[</sup>n] The wisest and best part of the Roman Catholics acknowledge, that Leo X. was chargeable with the most culpable imprudence in this rash and violent method of proceeding.

extracted from his writings, were solemnly condemned, his writings ordered to be publicly burnt, and in which he was again summoned, on pain of excommunication, to confess and retract his pretended errors within the space of sixty days, and to cast himself upon the clemency and mercy of

the pontif.

XIV. As soon as the account of this rash sen-Luther withdraws tence, pronounced from the papal chair, was himself brought to Luther, he thought it was high time from the to consult both his present defence and his fu-of the ture security; and the first step he took for this church of purpose, was the renewal of his appeal from the Rome. sentence of the Roman pontif, to the more respectable decision of a general council. But as he foresaw that this appeal would be treated with contempt at the court of Rome, and that when the time prescribed for his recantation was elapsed, the thunder of excommunication would be levelled at his devoted head, he judged it prudent to withdraw himself voluntarily from the communion of the church of Rome, before he was obliged to leave it by force; and thus to render this new bull of ejection a blow in the air, an exercise of authority without any object to act upon. At the same time, he was resolved to execute this wise resolution in a public manner, that his voluntary retreat from the communion of a corrupt and superstitious

See a Dissertation of the learned John Frederick Mayer, De Pontificiis Leonis X. processum adversus Lutherum improbantibus, which is part of a work he published at Hamburg, in 4to in the year 1698, under this singular title: Ecclesia Romana Reformationis Lutheranæ patrona et cliens. There were several wise and thinking persons at this time about the Roman pontif, who declared openly, without the least ceremony, their disapprolation of the violent counsels of Eckius and the Dominicans; and gave it as their opinion, that it was both prudent and just to wait for the issue of the conferences of Militar with Luther, before such forcible measures were employed.

CENT. perstitious church might be universally known, SECT. I. before the lordly pontif had prepared his ghostly thunder. With this view, on the 10th of December, in the year 1520, he had a pile of wood erected without the walls of the city [0], and there in presence of a prodigious multitude of people of all ranks and orders, he committed to the flames both the bull that had been published against him, and the decretals and canons relating to the pope's supreme jurisdiction. By this he declared to the world, that he was no longer a subject of the Roman pontif; and that, of consequence, the sentence of excommunication against him, which was daily expected from Rome, was entirely superfluous and insignificant. For the man who publicly commits to the flames the code that contains the laws of his sovereign, shews thereby that he has no longer any respect for his government, nor any design to submit to his authority; and the man who voluntarily withdraws himself from any society, cannot, with any appearance of reason or common sense, be afterwards forcibly and authoritatively excluded from it. It is not improbable, that LUTHER was directed, in this critical measure, by persons well skilled in the law, who are generally dextrous in furnishing a perplexed client with nice distinctions and plausible evasions. Be that as it may, he separated himself only from the church of Rome, which considers the pope as infallible, and not from the church, considered in a more extensive sense; for he submitted to the decision of the universal church, when that decision should be given in a general council lawfully When this judicious distinction is assembled. considered, it will not appear at all surprising, that many, even of the Roman catholics, who weighed matters with a certain degree of impartiality and wisdom, and were zealous for the main-

[o] Of Wittemberg.

tenance

tenance of the liberties of Germany, justified this CENT. bold resolution of LUTHER [0]. In less than a SECT. I month after this noble and important step had been taken by the Saxon reformer, a second bull was issued out against him, on the 6th of January, 1521, by which he was expelled from the communion of the church, for having insulted the majesty, and disowned the supremacy, of the Roman pontif [p].

XV. Such iniquitous laws, enacted against the The rise person and doctrine of Luther, produced an of the Lucification the church.

Effect different from what was expected by the church.

Instead of intimidating this

Imperious pontif. Instead of intimidating this bold reformer, they led him to form the project of founding a church upon principles entirely opposite to those of Rome, and to establish, in it, a system of doctrine and ecclesiastical discipline, agreeable to the spirit and precepts of the Gospel of truth. This, indeed, was the only resource Luther had left him; for to submit to the orders of a cruel and insolent enemy, would have been the greatest degree of imprudence imaginable; and to embrace, anew, errors that he had rejected with a just indignation, and exposed with the clearest evidence, would have discovered a want of integrity and principle, worthy only of the most

tended to, and the Romanists, some through artifice, others through ignorance, have confounded the papacy with the catbolic church; though they be, in reality, two different things. The papacy indeed, by the ambitious dexterity of the Roman pontifs, incorporated itself by degrees into the church; but it was a preposterous supplement, and was really as foreign to its genuine constitution, as a new citadel erected, by a successful usurper, would be to an ancient city. Luther set out and acted upon this distinction; he went out of the citadel, but he meant to remain in the city, and, like a good patriot, designed to reform its corrupted government.

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abandoned

[p] Both these bulls are to be found in the Bullarium Romawent, and also in the learned Pfaff's Histor. Theol. Literar.

tom. ii. p. 42.

CENTabandoned profligate. From this time, therefore, SECT. I. he applied himself to the pursuit of the truth with still more assiduity and fervour than he had formerly done; nor did he only review with attention, and confirm by new arguments, what he had hitherto taught, but went much beyond it, and made vigorous attacks upon the main stronghold of popery, the power and jurisdiction of the Roman pontif, which he overturned from its very foundation. In this noble undertaking he was seconded by many learned and pious men, in various parts of Europe; by those of the professors of the academy of Wittemberg, who had adopted his principles; and in a more especial manner by the celebrated Melancthon. And as the fame of LUTHER's wisdom and MELANCTHON's learning had filled that academy with an incredible number of students, who flocked to it from all parts, this happy circumstance propagated the principles of the Reformation with an amazing rapidity thro all the countries of Europe [q].

A dict assembled at Worms, in 1521.

XVI. Not long after the commencement of these divisions, Maximilian 1. had departed this life, and his grandson CHARLES V. king of Spain, had succeeded him in the year 1519. LEO X. seized this new occasion of venting and executing his vengeance, by putting the new emperor in mind of his character as advocate and defender of the church, and demanding the exemplary punishment of LUTHER, who had rebelled against its sacred laws and institutions. On the other hand, FREDERICK the Wise employed his credit with Charles to prevent the publication of any unjust edict against this reformer, and to have his cause tried by the canons of the Germanic church, and

<sup>[</sup>q] There is a particular account of the rapid progress of the reformation in Germany given by the learned M. Daniel Gerdes, professor at Groningen, in his Historia renova: i Evangelii, tom. ii.

and the laws of the empire. This request was so CENT. much the more likely to be granted, that Charles Sect. I. was under much greater obligations to FREDERICK, than to any other of the German princes, as it was chiefly by his zealous and important services that he had been raised to the empire, in opposition to the pretensions of such a formidable rival as FRANCIS I. king of France. The emperor was sensible of his obligations to the worthy elector, and was entirely disposed to satisfy his demands. That, however, he might do this without displeasing the Roman pontif, he resolved that Lu-THER should be called before the council, that was to be assembled at Worms in the year 1521, and that his cause should be there publicly heard, before any final sentence should be pronounced against him. It may perhaps appear strange, and even inconsistent with the laws of the church, that a cause of a religious nature should be examined and decided in the public diet. But it must be considered, that these diets, in which the archbishops, bishops, and even certain abbots, had their places, as well as the princes of the empire, were not only political assemblies, but also provincial councils for Germany, to whose jurisdiction, by the ancient canon law, such causes as that of LUTHER properly belonged.

XVII. LUTHER, therefore, appeared at Worms, The result secured against the violence of his enemies by a of this diet, safe-conduct from the emperor, and, on the 17th banish-of April, and the day following, pleaded his cause ment. before that grand assembly with the utmost resolution and presence of mind. The united power of threatenings and entreaties were employed to conquer the firmness of his purpose, to engage him to renounce the propositions he had hitherto maintained, and to bend him to a submission to the Roman pontif. But he refused all this with a noble obstinacy, and declared solemnly, that he

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SECT. I. his conduct, until he was previously convinced, by the word of God, or the dictates of right reason, that his opinions were erroneous, and his conduct unlawful. When therefore neither promises nor threatenings could shake the constancy of this magnanimous reformer, he obtained, indeed, from the emperor the liberty of returning, unmolested, to his home; but after his departure from the diet, he was condemned by the unanimous suffrages both of the emperor and the princes, and was declared an enemy to the holy Roman empire [r].

FREDERICK;

[r] This sentence, which was dated the 8th of May, 1521, was excessively severe; and Charles V. whether through sincere zeal or political cunning, shewed himself in this affair an ardent abettor of the papal authority. For in this edict the pope is declared the only true judge of the controversy, in which he was evidently the party concerned; Luther is declared a member cut off from the church, a schismasic, a notorious and obstinate beretic; the severest punishments are denounced against those, who shall receive, entertain, maintain, or countenance him, either by acts of hospitality, by conversation or writing; and all his disciples, adherents, and followers, are involved in the same condemnation. This edict was, however, received with the highest disapprobation by all wise and thinking persons, 1st, because Luther had been condemned without being heard, at Rome, by the college of cardinals, and afterwards at Worms, where, without either examining or refuting his doctrine, he was only despotically ordered to abandon and renounce it; 2dly, because Charles V. as emperor, had not a right to give an authoritative sentence against the doctrine of Luther, nor to take for granted the infallibility of the Roman pontif, before these matters were discussed and decided by a general council; and 3dly, because a considerable number of the German princes, who were immediately interested in this affair, such as the electors of Cologn, Saxony, and the Palatinate, and other sovereign princes, had neither been present at the diet, nor examined and approved the edici; and that, therefore, at best, it could only have force in the territories belonging to the house of Austria, and to such of the princes as had given their consent to its publication. But after all, the edict of Worms produced almost no effect, not only for the reasons now mentioned, but also because Charles V. whose presence, authority, and zeal, were necessary to render

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FREDERICK, who saw the storm xising against Lu-c en r. THER, used the best precautions to secure him XVI. from its violence. For this purpose he sent three or four persons, in whom he could confide, to meet him on his return from the diet, in order to conduct him to a place of safety. These emissaries, disguised by masks, executed their commission with the utmost secrecy and success. Meeting with Luther, near Eysenac, they seized him, and carried him into the castle of Wartenberg, nor, as some have imagined upon probable grounds, was this done without the knowledge of his 1mperial majesty. In this retreat, which he called his Patmos, the Saxon reformer lay concealed during the space of ten months, and employed this involuntary leisure in compositions that were afterwards useful to the world [s].

XVIII. The

which he had more at heart. Obliged to pass successively into Flanders, England, and Spain, to quell the seditions of his subjects, and to form new alliances against his great enemy and rival Francis I. he lost sight of the edict of Worms, while all who had any regard to the liberties of the empire and the rights of the Germanic church treated this edict with the high-

est indignation, or the utmost contempt.

[s] This precaution of the humane and excellent elector, being put in execution the 3d of May, five days before the solemn publication of the edict of Worms, the pope missed his blow; and the adversaries of Luther became doubly odious to the people in Germany, who, unacquainted with the scheme of Frederick, and, not knowing what was become of their favourite reformer, imagined he was imprisoned. or perhaps destroyed, by the emissaries of Rome. In the mean time, Luther lived in peace and quiet in the castle of Wartenberg, where he translated a great part of the New Testament into the German lauguage, and wrote frequent letters to his trusty friends and intimates to comfort them under his absence. Nor was his conmement here inconsistent with amusement and relaxation; for be enjoyed frequently the pleasure of hunting in company with his keepers, passing for a country gentleman, under the name of Yonker George.

If we cast an eye upon the conduct of Luther, in this first scene of his trials, we shall find a true spirit of rational

zeal.

## The History of the Reformation.

SECT. I. The conduct of Luther after his leaving the castle of Wartenberg.

CENT. XVII. The active spirit of Luther could not, however, long bear this confinement; he therefore left his Patmos in the month of March, of the year 1522, without the consent or even the knowledge, of his patron and protector FREDE-RICK, and repaired to Wittemberg. One of the principal motives that engaged him to take this bold step, was the information he had received of the inconsiderate conduct of Carlostadt, and some other friends of the Reformation, who had already excited

> zeal, generous probity, and Christian fortitude, animating this In his behaviour, before and at the diet of Worms, we observe these qualities shine with a peculiar lustre, and tempered, notwithstanding Luther's warm complexion, with an unexpected degree of moderation and decent respect both for his civil and ecclesiastical superiors. When some of his friends, informed of the violent designs of the Roman court, and alarmed by the bull that had been published against him by the rash pontif, advised him not to expose his person at the diet of Worms, notwithstanding the imperial safe conduct (which, in a similar case, had not been sufficient to protect John Huss and Jerome of Prague from the perfidy and cruelty of their enemies), he answered with his usual intrepedity, that "were he obliged to encounter at Worms as many devils as there were tiles upon the houses of that city, this would not deter him from his fixed purpose of appearing there; that fear, in his case, could be only a suggestion of Satan, who apprehended the approaching ruin of his kingdom, and who was willing to avoid a public defeat before such a grand assembly as the diet of Worms." The fire and obstinacy that appeared in this answer seemed to prognosticate much warmth and vehemence in Luther's conduct at the assembly before which he was going to appear. But it was quite otherwise. He exposed with decency and dignity the superstitious doctrines and practices of the church of Rome, and the grievances that arose from the over-grown power of its pontif, and the abuse that was made of it. He acknowledged the writings with which he was charged, and offered, both with moderation and humility, to defend their contents. He desired the pope's legates and their adherents to hear him, to inform him. to reason with him; and solemnly offered, in presence of the assembled princes and bishops, to renounce his doctrines, if they were shown to be erroneous. But to all these expostulations he received no other answer, then the despotic dictates of mere authority, attended with injurious and provoking language.

excited tumults in Saxony, and were acting in ac ENT. manner equally prejudicial to the tranquillity of XVI. the state, and the true interests of the church. SECT. I. CARLOSTADT, professor at Wittemberg, was a man of considerable learning, who had pierced the veil, with which papal artifice and superstition had covered the truth, and, at the instigation of Eckius, had been excluded with Luther from the communion of the church. His zeal, however, was intemperate; his plans laid with temerity, and executed without moderation. During Lu-THER's absence, he threw down and broke the images of the saints that were placed in the churches, and instead of restraining the vehemence of a fanatical multitude, who had already begun in some places to abuse the precious liberty that was dawning upon them, he encouraged their ill-timed violence, and led them on to sedition and mutiny. Luther opposed the impetuosity of this imprudent reformer with the utmost fortitude and dignity, and wisely exhorted him and his adherents first to eradicate error from the minds of the people, before they made war upon its external ensigns in the churches and public places; since, the former being once removed, the latter must fall of course [t], and since the destruction of

more advantageous to Luther than the rigorous demands of historical impartiality will admit of; the defects at least of the great reformer are here shaded with art. It is evident from several passages in the writings of Luther, that he was by no means averse to the use of images, but that, on the contrary, he looked upon them as adapted to excite and animate the devotion of the people. But, perhaps the true reason of Luther's displeasure at the proceedings of Carlostadt, was, that he could not bear to see another crowned with the glory of executing a plan which he had laid, and that he was ambitious of appearing the principal, if not the only, conductor of this great work. This is not a mere conjecture. Luther himself has not taken the least pains to conceal this instance of his ambition;

© E N T. of the latter alone could be attended with no last-SECT. I. ing fruits. To these prudent admonitions this excellent reformer added the influence of example, by applying himself with redoubled industry and zeal, to his German translation of the Holy Scriptures, which he carried on with expedition and success [u], with the assistance of some learned and pious men, whom he consulted in this great and important undertaking. The event abundantly shewed the wisdom of Luther's advice. For the different parts of this translation, being successively and gradually spread among the people, produced sudden and almost incredible effects, and extirpated, root and branch, the erroneous principles and superstitious doctrines of the church of Rome from the minds of a prodigious number of persons.

Leo X. succeeded by remberg.

XIX. While these things were transacting, LEO Adrian vl. X. departed this life, and was succeeded in the in the year pontificate by ADRIAN VI. a native of Utrecht. Diet of Nu. This pope, who had formerly been preceptor to CHARLES V. and who owed his new dignity to the good offices of that prince, was a man of probity. and candor, who acknowledged ingenuously that the church laboured under the most fatal disorders,

> ambition; and it appears evidently in several of his letters. On the other hand, it must be owned, that Carlostadt was rash, violent, and prone to enthusiasm, as appears by the connexionshe formed afterwards with the fanatical anabaptists, headed by Munzer. His contests with Luther about the eucharist, in which he manifestly maintained the truth, shall be mentioned in their proper place.

> [u] On this German translation of the Bible, which contributed more than all other causes, taken together, to strengthen the foundations of the Lutheran church, we have an interesting history composed by Jo. Frid. Mayer, and published in 4to at, Hamburg, in the year 1701. A more ample one, however, was expected from the labours of the learned J. Melchior Kraft, but his death has disappointed our hopes. See Jo. Alb. Fabricii Centifolium Lutheran. par. I. p. 147. & par. II. p. 617.

orders, and declared his willingness to apply the CENT. remedies that should be judged the most adapted SECT. I. to heal them [w]. He began his pontificate by sending a legate to the diet, which was assembled at Nuremberg in 1522. Francis Cheregato, the person who was intrusted with this commission, had positive orders to demand the speedy and vigorous execution of the sentence that had been pronounced against Luther and his followers at the diet of Worms; but, at the same time, he was authorised to declare that the pontif was ready to remove the abuses and grievances that had armed such a formidable enemy against the see of Rome. The princes of the empire, encouraged by this declaration on the one hand, and by the absence of the emperor, who, at this time, resided in Spain, on the other, seized this opportunity of proposing the summoning a general council in Germany, in order to deliberate upon the proper methods of bringing about an universal reformation of the church. They exhibited, at the same time, an hundred articles, containing the heaviest complaints of the injurious treatment the Germans had hitherto received from the court of Rome, and, by a public law, prohibited all innovation in religious matters, until a general council should decide what was to be done in an affair of such high moment and importance [x]. As long as the German princes were unacquainted with, or inattentive to, the measures that were taken in Saxony for founding a new church in direct opposition to that of Rome, they were zealously unanimous in their endeavours to set bounds to the papal authority and jurisdiction, which they all looked upon

[e] See Jac. Fild. Georgii Gravamina Germanorum adver-

<sup>[</sup>w] See Caspar. Burmanni Adrianus VI. sive Analecia Historica de Adriano VI. Papa Romano, published at Utrecht in 410, in the year 1727.

C E N T. upon as overgrown and enormous: nor were they XVI.

SECT. I. at all offended at LUTHER's contest with the Roman pontif, which they considered as a dispute of a private and personal nature.

Clement VII. elected pope in the year 1524.

XX. The good pope Adrian did not long enjoy the pleasure of sitting at the head of the church. He died in the year 1523, and was succeeded by CLEMENT VII. a man of a reserved character, and prone to artifice [7]. This pontif sent to the imperial dietat Nuremberg, in the year 1524, a cardinal-legate, named CAMPEGIUS, whose orders, with respect to the affairs of LUTHER, breathed nothing but severity and violence, and who inveighed against the lenity of the German princes in delaying the execution of the decree of Worms, while he carefully avoided the smallest mention of the promise Adrian had made to reform the corruptions of a superstitious church. The emperor seconded the demands of CAMPEGIus by the orders he sent to his minister to insist upon the execution of the sentence which had been pronounced against Luther and his adherents at the diet of Worms. The princes of the empire, tired out by these importunities and remonstrances, changed in appearance the law they had passed, but confirmed it in reality. For while they promised to observe, as far as was possible, the edict of Worms, they, at the same time, renewed their demands of a general council, and left all other matters in dispute to be examined and decided at the diet that was soon to be assembled at Spire. The pope's legate, on the other hand, perceiving by these proceedings, that the German princes in general were no enemies to the Reformation, retired to Ratisbon, with the bishops and those of the princes that adhered to the cause

of

<sup>[</sup>v] See Jac. Zeigleri Historia Clementis VII. in Jo. Georgii Schelhornii Amanitates Histor. Eccles. tom. ii. p. 210.

of Rome, and there drew from them a new decla-CENT. ration, by which they engaged themselves to SECT. I. execute rigorously the edict of Worms in their

respective dominions.

XXI. While the efforts of Luther towards Carlostadt the reformation of the church were daily crowned gle. with growing success, and almost all the nations seemed disposed to open their eyes upon the light, two unhappy occurrences, one of a foreign, and the other of a domestic nature, contributed greatly to retard the progress of this salutary and glorious work. The domestic, or internal incident, was a controversy concerning the manner in which the body and blood of Christ were present in the eucharist, that arose among those whom the Roman pontif had publicly excluded from the communion of the church, and unhappily produced among the friends of the good cause the most deplorable animosities and divisions. and his followers, though they had rejected the monstrous doctrine of the church of Rome with respect to the transubstantiation, or change of the bread and wine into the body and blood of CHRIST, were nevertheless of opinion, that the partakers of the Lord's supper received, along with the bread and wine, the real body and blood of Christ. This, in their judgment, was a mystery, which they did not pretend to explain [2]. CARLOSTADT, who was Luther's colleague, understood the matter quite otherwise, and his doctrine, which was afterwards illustrated and confirmed

Presents him. He pretended to explain his doctrine of the real presence, absurd and contradictory as it was, and uttered much senseless jargon on this subject. As in a red hot iron, said he, two distinct substances, viz. iron and fire, are united, so is the body of Christ joined with the bread in the eucharist. I mention this miserable comparison to shew into what absurdities the towering pride of system will often bettay men of deep sense and true genius.

C E N T. confirmed by Zuingle with much more ingenus SECT. I. ity than he had proposed it, amounted to this:
"That the body and blood of Christ were not " really present in the eucharist; and that the " bread and wine were no more than external "signs, or symbols, designed to excite in the " minds of Christians the remembrance of the " sufferings and death of the divine Saviour, and " of the benefits which arise from it [a]." This opinion was embraced by all the friends of the Reformation in Switzerland, and by a considerable number of its votaries in Germany. other hand, Luther maintained his doctrine, in relation to this point, with the utmost obstinacy; and hence arose, in the year 1524, a tedious and vehement controversy, which, notwithstanding the zealous endeavours that were used to reconcile the contending parties, terminated, at length, in a fatal division between those who had embarked together in the sacred cause of religion and liberty.

The war of the pea-

XXII. To these intestine divisions were added the horrors of a civil war, which was the fatal effect of oppression on the one hand, and of enthusiasm on the other; and, by its unhappy consequences, was prejudicial to the cause and progress of the Reformation. In the year 1525, a prodigious multitude of seditious fanatics arose, like a whirlwind, all of a sudden, in different parts of Germany, took arms, united their forces, waged war against

against the laws, the magistrates, and the empire CENT. in general, laid waste the country with fire and S x C T. I. sword, and exhibited daily the most horrid spectacles of unrelenting barbarity. The greatest part of this furious and formidable mob was composed of peasants and vassals, who groaned under heavy burthens, and declared they were no longer able to bear the despotic severity of their chiefs; and hence this sedition was called the Rustic war, or the war of the peasants [b]. But it is also certain, that this motley crowd was intermixed with numbers, who joined in this sedition from different motives, some impelled by the suggestions of enthusiasm, and others by the profligate and odious view of rapine and plunder, of mending fortunes ruined by extravagant and dissolute living. At the first breaking out of this war, it seemed to have been kindled only by civil and political views; and agreeable to this is the general tenor of the Declarations and Manifestoes that were published by these rioters. The claims they made in these papers related to nothing farther than the diminution of the tasks imposed upon the Peasants, and to their obtaining a greater measure of liberty than they had hitherto enjoyed. Religion seemed to be out of the question; at least, it was not the object of deliberation or debate. But no sooner had the enthusiast Munzer [c]put himself at the head of this outrageous rab-

F.

[c] Or munster, as some call him.  ${
m Vol.}~{f 1V.}$ 

ble,

<sup>[</sup>b] These kinds of wars or commotions, arising from the impatience of the peasants, under the heavy burthens that were hid on them, were very common long before the time of Luther. Hence the author of the Danish Chronicle (published by the learned Ludewig, in the ninth volume of his Reliq. MS:orum, P. 59.) calls these insurrections a common evil. This will not appear surprising to such as consider, that in most places, the condition of the peasants was much more intolerable and grievous before the reformation, than it is in our times; and that the tyranny and cruelty of the nobility, before that happy peried, were excessive and insupportable.

CENT. ble, than the face of things changed entirely, and Szcr. I. by the instigation of this man, who had deceived numbers before this time by his pretended visions and inspirations, the civil commotions in Saxony and Thuringia were soon directed towards a new object, and were turned into a religious war. The sentiments, however, of this seditious and dissolute multitude were greatly divided, and their demands were very different. One part of them pleaded for an exemption from all laws, a licentious immunity from every sort of government; another, less outrageous and extravagant, confined their demands to a diminution of the taxes they were forced to pay, and of the burthens under which they groaned [d]; another insisted upon a new form of religious doctrine, government, and worship, upon the establishment of a pure and unspotted church, and, to add weight to this demand, pretended, that it was suggested by the Holy Ghost, with which they were divinely and miraculously inspired; while a very considerable part of this furious rabble were without any ditinct view or any fixed purpose at all, but, infected with the contagious spirit of sedition, and exasperated by the severity of their magistrates and rulers, went on headlong, without reflection or foresight, into every act of violence and cruelty which rebellion and enthusiasm could suggest. So that, if it cannot be denied that many of these, rioters had perversely misunderstood the doctrine of Luther concerning Christian liberty, and took occasion from thence of committing the disorders that rendered them so justly odious, yet, on the other hand, it would be a most absurd instance of partiality and injustice to charge that doctrine with the blame of those extravagant outrages that arose.

<sup>[</sup>d] These burdens were the duties of vassalage or feudal mervices, which, in many respects, were truly grievous.

himself, has indeed sufficiently defended both his principles and his cause against any such imputations by the books he wrote against this turbulent sect, and the advice he addressed to the princes of the empire to take arms against them. And, accordingly, in the year 1525, this odious faction was defeated and destroyed, in a pitched battle fought at Mulbausen; and Munzer, their ringleader, taken, and put to death [e].

XXIII. While this fanatical insurrection raged Frederick in Germany, FREDERICK the Wise, elector of Saxony, dies, and is departed this life. This excellent prince, whose by John, character was distinguished by an uncommon de-1525 gree of prudence and moderation, had, during his 1527. life, been a sort of a mediator between the Roman pontif and the reformer of Wittemberg, and had always entertained the pleasing hope of restoring peace in the church, and of so reconciling the contending parties as to prevent a separation either in point of ecclesiastical jurisdiction or religious com-Hence it was, that while, on the one hand, he made no opposition to Luther's design of reforming a corrupt and superstitious church, but rather encouraged him in the execution of this pious purpose; yet, on the other hand, it is remarkable, that he was at no pains to introduce any change into the churches that were established in his own dominions, nor to subject them to his jurisdiction. The elector John, his brother and successor, acted in a quite different manner. Convinced of the truth of LUTHER's doctrine, and persuaded that it must'lose ground and be soon suppressed if the despotic authority of the Roman pontif remained undisputed and entire, he, with-F 2 out

[e] "Petri Gnodalii Historia de Seditione repentina Vulgi, precipue Rusticorum, A. 1525, tempore verno per universana fere Germanium exorta, Baril, 1570," in 8vo.—See also B. Tenzelii Histor. Reform, tom. ii. p. 331.

CENT. out hesitation or delay, assumed to himself that XVI. S R C 7. I. supremacy in ecclesiastical matters that is the natural right of every lawful sovereign, and founded. and established a church in his dominions, totally different from the church of Rome, in doctrine, discipline, and government. To bring this new and happy establishment to as great a degree of perfection as was possible, this resolute and active prince ordered a body of laws, relating to the form of ecclesiastical government, the method of public worship, the rank, offices, and revenues of the priesthood, and other matters of that nature, to be drawn up by Luther and Melancthon. and promulgated by heralds throughout his dominions in the year 1527. He also took care that the churches should every where be supplied with pious and learned doctors, and that such of the clergy as dishonoured religion by their bad morals, or were incapable of promoting its influence by their want of talents, should be removed from the sacred functions. The illustrious example of this elector was followed by all the princes and states of Germany, who renounced the papal supremacy and jurisdiction, and a like form of worship, discipline, and government was thus introduced into all the churches, which dissented from that of Rome. Thus may the elector John be considered as the second parent and founder of the Lutheran church, which he alone rendered a complete and independent body, distinct from the superstitious church of Rome, and fenced about with salutary laws, with a wise and well-balanced constitution of government. But as the best blessings may, through the influence of human corruption, become the innocent occasions of great inconveniencies, such particularly was the fate of those wise and vigorous measures which this elector took for the reformation of the church; for, from that time, the religious differences between

tween the German princes, which had hitherto CENT. kept within the bounds of moderation, broke outs I C T. I. into a violent and lasting flame. The prudence, or rather timorousness, of Frederick the wise, who avoided every resolute measure that might be adapted to kindle the fire of discord, had preserved a sort of an external union and concord among these princes, notwithstanding their difference in opinion. But as soon as his successor, by the open and undisguised steps he took, made it glaringly evident, that he designed to withdraw the churches in his dominions from the jurisdiction of Rome, and to reform the doctrine, discipline, and worship that had been hitherto established, then indeed the scene changed. The union, which was more specious than solid, and which was far from being well cemented, was dissolved of a sudden, the spirits heated and divided, and an open rupture formed between the German princes, of whom one party embraced the Reformation, and the other adhered to the superstitions of their forefathers.

XXIV. Things being reduced to this violent The diet of and troubled state, the patrons of popery gave in- Spire in 1526. timations, that were far from being ambiguous, of their intention to make war upon the Lutheran party, and to suppress by force a doctrine which they were incapable of overturning by argument; and this design would certainly have been put in execution, had not the troubles of Europe disconcerted their measures. The Lutherans, on the other hand, informed of these hostile intentions, began also to deliberate upon the most effectual methods of defending themselves against superstition armed with violence, and formed the plan of a confederacy that might answer this prudent purpose. In the mean time the diet assembled at Spire, in the year 1526, at which FERDINAND, the emperor's brother, presided, ended in a man40

CENT.ne mor fa ourable to the friends of the Re-SECT. I. formation, than they could naturally expect. The

emperor's ambassadors at this diet were ordered to use their most earnest endeavours for the suppression of all farther disputes concerning religion, and to insist upon the rigorous execution of the sentence that had been pronounced at Worms. against Luther and his followers. The greatest part of the German princes opposed this motion with the utmost resolution, declaring, that they could not execute that sentence, nor come to any determination with respect to the doctrines by which it had been occasioned, before the whole matter was submitted to the cognizance of a general council lawfully assembled; alleging farther, that the decision of controversies of this nature belonged properly to such a council, and to This opinion, after long and warm debates, was adopted by a great majority, and, at length, consented to by the whole assembly; for it was unanimously agreed to present a solemn address to the emperor, beseeching him to assemble, without delay, a free and a general council; and it was also agreed, that, in the mean time, the princes and states of the empire should, in their respective dominions, be at liberty to manage ecclesiastical matters in the manner they should think the most expedient; yet so as to be able to give to God and to the emperor an account of their administration, when it should be demanded of them.

The proreformation after the diet at Spire, 1527.

XXV. Nothing could be more favourable to gress of the those who had the cause of pure and genuine Christianity at heart, than a resolution of this For the emperor was, at this time, so entirely taken up in regulating the troubled state of his dominions in France, Spain, and Italy, which exhibited, from day to day, new scenes of perplexity, that, for some years, it was not in his power

power to turn his attention to the affairs of Ger-CENT. many in general, and still less to the state of religion in particular, which was beset with difficulties, that, to a political prince like Charles, must have appeared peculiarly critical and dangerous. Besides, had the emperor really been possessed of leisure to form, or of power to execute, a plan that might terminate, in favour of the Roman pontif, the religious disputes which reigned in Germany, it is evident, that the inclination was wanting, and that CLEMENT VII. who now sat in the papal chair, had nothing to expect from the good offices of CHARLES V. For this pontif, after the defeat of Francis I. at the battle of Pavia, filled with uneasy apprehensions of the growing power of the emperor in Italy, entered into a confederacy with the French and the Venetians against that prince. And this measure inflamed the resentment and indignation of CHARLES to such a degree, that he abolished the papal authotity in his Spanish dominions, made war upon the pope in Italy, laid siege to Rome in the year 1527, blocked up CLEMENT in the castle of St Angelo, and exposed him to the most severe and contumelious treatment. These critical events, together with the liberty granted by the diet of Spire, were prudently and industriously improved, by the friends of the Reformation, to the advantage of their cause, and to the augmentation of their number. Several princes, whom the fear of persecution and punishment had hitherto prevented from lending a hand to the good work, being delivered now from their restraint, renounced publicly the superstition of Rome, and introduced among their subjects the same forms of religious worship, and the same system of doctrine, that had been received in Saxony. Others, though placed in such circumstances as discouraged them from acting in an open manner against the inte-F 4

CENT rests of the Roman pontif, were, however, far SECT. I. from discovering the smallest opposition to those who withdrew the people from his despotic yoke; nor did they molest the private assemblies of those who had separated themselves from the church of Rome. And in general, all the Germans, who, before these resolutions of the diet of Spire, had rejected the papal discipline and doctrine, were now, in consequence of the liberty they enjoyed by these resolutions, wholly employed in bringing their schemes and plans to a certain degree of consistence, and in adding vigour and firmness to the glorious cause in which they were engaged. In the mean time, LUTHER and his fellow-labourers, particularly those who were with him at Wittemberg, by their writings, their instructions, their admonitions and counsels, inspired the timorous with fortitude, dispelled the doubts of the ignorant, fixed the principles and resolution of the floating and inconstant, and animated all the friends of genuine Christianity with a spirit suitable to the grandeur of their undertaking,

Another diet held at Spire, in the year 1529. Oridenomination of Protestants.

XXVI. But the tranquillity and liberty they enjoyed, in consequence of the resolutions taken in the first diet of Spire, were not of a long duragin of the tion. They were interrupted by a new diet assembled, in the year 1529, in the same place, by. the emperor, after he had appeased the commotions and troubles which had employed his attention in several parts of Europe, and concluded a treaty of peace with CLEMENT VII. This prince, having now got rid of the burthen that had, for some time, overwhelmed him, had leisure to direct the affairs of the church; and this the reformers soon felt, by a disagreeable experience. For the power, which had been granted by the former diet to every prince, of managing ecclesiastical matters as they thought proper, until the meeting of a general council, was now revoked by a majority

majority of votes; and not only so, but every CENT. introduced into the doctrine, discipline, or worship SECT. I. of the established religion before the of the established religion, before the determination of the approaching council was known [f], This decree was justly considered as iniquitous and intolerable by the elector of Saxony, the landgrave of Hesse, and the other members of the diet, who were persuaded of the necessity of a reformation in the church. Nor was any of them so simple, or so little acquainted with the politics of Rome, as to look upon the promises of assembling speedily a general council, in any other light, than as an artifice to quiet the minds of the people; since it was easy to perceive, that a lawful council, free from the despotic influence of Rome, was the very last thing that a pope would grant in such a critical situation of affairs. Therefore, when the princes and members now mentioned found that all their arguments and remonstrances against this unjust decree made no impression upon Ferdinand [g], nor upon the abettors of the ancient superstitions (whom the pope's legate animated by his presence and exhortations), they entered a solemn protest against this decree on the 19th of April, and appealed to the emperor and to a future council [b]. Hence arose the denomination

[f] The resolution of the first diet of Spire, which had been taken unanimously, was revoked in the second, and another substituted in its place by a plurality of voices, which, as everal of the princes then present observed, could not give to my decree the force of a law throughout the empire.

The emperor was at Barcelona, while this diet was held at Spire; so that his brother Ferdinand was president in

his place.

[b] The princes of the empire, who entered this protest, and are consequently to be considered as the first protestant princes, were John, elector of Sanony, George, elector of Brandenburg, for Franconia, Ernest and Francis, dukes of . Lunenburg, the landgrave of Hesse, and the prince of Anhali. These

SECT. I. been given to those who renounce the superstitious communion of the church of Rome.

Leagues
formed
between
the protestants.

XXVII. The dissenting princes, who were the protectors and heads of the reformed churches, had no sooner entered their protest, than they sent proper persons to the emperor, who was them upon his passage from Spain to Italy, to acquaint him with their proceedings in this matter. ministers, employed in this commission, executed the orders they had received with the greatest resolution and presence of mind, and behaved with the spirit and firmness of the princes, whose sentiments and conduct they were sent to justify and explain. The emperor, whose pride was wounded by this fortitude in persons that dared to oppose his designs, ordered these ambassadors to be apprehended and put under arrest during several days. The news of this violent step was soon brought to the protestant princes, and made them conclude that their personal safety, and the success of their cause, depended entirely upon their courage and concord, the one animated, and the other cemented by a solemn confederacy. They, therefore, held several meetings at Rot, Nuremberg, Smalcald, and other places, in order to deliberate upon the means of forming such a powerful league as might enable them to repel the violence of their enemies [i]. But so different were their

These princes were seconded by thirteen imperial towns, vis. Strasburg, Ulm, Nuremberg, Constance, Rostingen, Windseim, Memmingen, Nortlingen, Lindaw, Kempten, Heilbron, Wissemburg, and St Gall.

[1] See the history of the confession of Augsburg, wrote in German by the learned Christ. Aug. Salig. tom. i. book II. ch. i. p. 128. and more especially another German work of Dr Joachim Muller, entitled, Historie von der Evangelischen Stande Protestation gegen den Speyerschen Reichsabscheid von 1529, Appellation, &c. published at Jena in 4to, in the year 1703.

their opinions and views of things, that they cent.

XXVIII. Among the incidents that promoted enimosity and discord between the friends of the The confe-Reformation, and prevented that union that was Marpurg. so much to be desired between persons embarked in the year in the same good cause, the principal one was the 1529. dispute that had arisen between the divines of Saxeny and Switzerland, concerning the manner of Christ's presence in the eucharist. To terminate this controversy, Philip, landgrave of Hesse, invited, in the year 1529, to a conference at Marpurg, Lu-THER and ZUINGLE, together with some of the more eminent doctors, who adhered to the respective parties of these contending chiefs. This expedient, which was designed by that truly magnanimous prince, not so much to end the matter by keen debate, as to accommodate differences by the reconciling spirit of charity and prudence, was not attended with the salutary fruits that were expected from it. The divines that were assembled for this pacific purpose disputed, during four days, in presence of the landgrave. The principal champions in these debates were LUTHER, who attacked Oecolampadius, and Melancieon, who disputed against Zuingle; and the controversy turned upon several points of theology, in relation to which the Swiss doctors were supposed to entertain erroneous sentiments. For Zuingle was accused of heresy, not only on account of his explication of the nature and design of the Lord's Supper, but also in consequence of the false notions he was supposed to have adopted, relating to the divinity of Christ, the efficacy of the divine word, original sin, and some other parts of the Christian doctrine. This illustrious reformer cleared himself, however, from the greatest part of these accusations, with the most triumphant evidence, and in such a manner as appeared entirely

GENT tirely satisfactory, even to Luther himself. Their SECT. I. dissension concerning the manner of Christ's presence in the eucharist still remained; nor could either of the contending parties be persuaded to abandon, or even to modify, their opinion of that matter [k]. The only advantage, therefore, that resulted from this conference, was, that the jarring doctors formed a sort of truce, by agreeing to a mutual toleration of their respective sentiments, and leaving to the disposal of Providence, and the effects of time, which sometimes cools the rage of party, the cure of their divisions.

The diet of

XXIX. The ministers of the churches, which Angeburg had embraced the sentiments of Luther, were preparing a new embassy to the emperor, when an account was received of a design formed by that prince to come into Germany, with a view to terminate, in the approaching diet at Augsburg, the religious disputes that had produced such animosities and divisions in the empire. CHARLES, though long absent from Germany, and engaged in affairs that left him little leisure for theological disquisitions, was nevertheless attentive to these disputes, and foresaw their consequences. had also, to his own deliberate reflexions upon these disputes, added the councils of men of wisdom, sagacity, and experience, and was thus, at certain seasons, rendered more cool in his proceedings, and more moderate and impartial in his opinion both of the contending parties and of the merits of the cause. He therefore, in an interview with the pope at Balogna, insisted, in the most

<sup>· [</sup>k] Val. Ern. Loescheri Historia motuum inter Lutheranes et Reformatos, tom. i. lib. i. cap. vi. p. 143.—Henr. Bullingeri Historia Colloquii Marpurgensis, in Jo. Conr. Fuesslin's compilation, intitled, Beytragen zur Schweizer Reformat. Geschich-1e, tom. iii. p. 156. See also the Preface, p. 80.—Abr. Sculteti Annal. Reformat. ad A. 1529.—Rudolph. Hospiniani Histor. Sacramentar. par. II. p. 72, &c.

most serious and urgent manner, upon the neces-c ENT. sity of assembling a general council. His remon- XVI. strances and expostulations could not; however, SECT. I. move CLEMENT VII. who maintained with zeal the papal prerogatives, reproached the emperor with an ill-judged clemency, and alleged that it was the duty of that prince to support the church, and to execute speedy vengeance upon the obstinate beretical faction, who dared to call in question the authority of Rome and its pontif. The emperor was as little affected by this haughty discourse, as the pope had been by his wise remonstrances, and looked upon it as a most iniquitous thing, a measure also in direct opposition to the laws of the empire, to condemn, unheard, and to destroy, without any evidence of their demerit, a set of men, who had always approved themselves good citizens, and had deserved well of their country in several respects. Hitherto, indeed, it was not easy for the emperor to form a clear idea of the matters in debate, since there was no regular system as yet composed, of the doctrines embraced by Luther and his followers, by which their real opinions, and the true causes of their opposition to the Roman pontif, might be known with certainty. As, therefore, it was impossible, without some declaration of this nature, to examine with accuracy, or decide with equity, a matter of such high importance as that which gave rise to the divisions between the votaries of Rome and the friends of the Reformation, the elector of Saxony ordered Luther, and other eminent divines, to commit to writing the chief articles of their religious system, and the principal points in which they differed from the church of Rome. LUTHER, in compliance with this order, delivered to the elector, at Torgaw, the seventeen articles, which had been drawn up and agreed on in the conference at Sulaback in the year 1529;

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CENT and hence they were called the articles of Forgate SECT. I. [1]. Though these articles were deemed by Lu-THER a sufficient declaration of the sentiments of the reformers, yet it was judged proper to enlarge them; and, by a judicious detail, to give perspicuity to their arguments, and thereby strength to their cause. It was this consideration that engaged the protestant princes, assembled at Coburg and Augsburg, to employ Melancthon in extending these Articles, in which important work he shewed a due regard to the counsels of LUTHER, and expressed his sentiments and doctrine with the greatest elegance and perspicuity. And thus came forth to public view the famous confession of Augsburg, which did such honour to the acute judgment and the eloquent pen of Melancthon.

Theprogress of the reformation in Sweden, about the year 1530.

XXX. During these transactions in Germany, the dawn of truth arose upon other nations. The light of the reformation spread itself far and wide; and almost all the European states welcomed its salutary beams, and exulted in the prospect of an approaching deliverance from the yoke of superstition and spiritual despotism. Some of the most considerable provinces of Europe had already broke their chains, and openly withdrawn themselves from the discipline of Rome and the jurisdiction of its postif. And thus it appears that CLEMENT VII. was not impelled by a false alarm to demand of the emperor the speedy extirpation of the reformers, since he had the justest reasons to apprehend the destruction of his ghostly empire. The reformed religion was propagated in Sweden, soonafter LUTHER's rupture with Rome, by one of hisdisciples, whose name was Olaus Petri, and who

[1] See Chr. Aug. Heumanni Disc. de lenitate Augustance Confess. in Sylloge Dissert. Theologicar. tom. i. p. 14.—Jo. Joach Muller Historia Protestationis; and the other writers, who have treated either of the Reformation in general, or of the confession of Augsburg in particular.

was the first herald of religious liberty in that CENT. kingdom. The zealous efforts of this missionary SECT. I. were powerfully seconded by that valiant and public spirited prince, Gustavus Vasa Ericson, whom the Swedes had raised to the throne in the place of Christiern, king of Denmark, whose horrid barbarity lost him the sceptre that he had perfidiously usurped. This generous and patriotic hero had been in exile and in prison, while the brutish usurper, now mentioned, was involving his country in desolation and misery; but having escaped from his confinement and taken refuge at Lubec, he was there instructed in the principles of the Reformation, and looked upon the doctrine of Luther, not only as agreeable to the genius and spirit of the gospel, but also as favourable to the temporal state and political constitution of the Swedish dominions. The prudence, however, of this excellent prince was equal to his zeal, and accompanied it always. And as the religious opinions of the Swedes were in a fluctuating state, and their minds divided between their ancient superstitions, recommended by custom and the doctrine of Luther, which attracted their assent by the power of conviction and truth, Gustavus wisely avoided all vehemence and precipitation in spreading the new doctrine, and proceeded in this important undertaking with circumspection, and by degrees, in a manner suitable to the principles of the reformation, which are diametrically opposite to compulsion and violence [m]. Accordingly,

proofs of his wisdom and moderation. Once, while he was absent from Stockbulm, a great number of German anabaptists, probably the riotous disciples of Munzer, arrived in that city, carried their fanaticism to the highest extremities, pulled down with fury the images and other onaments of the churches, while the Lutherans dissembled their sentiments of this riot in the expectation that the storm would turn to their advantage. But Gustavus

C EN T. ingly, the first object of his attention was the SECT. 1. instruction of his people in the sacred doctrines of the Holy Scriptures, for which purpose he invited into his dominions several learned Germans, and spread abroad through the kingdom the Swedish translation of the Bible, that had been made by OLAUS PETRI [n]. Some time after this, in the year 1526, he appointed a conference, at Upsal, between this eminent reformer and Peter GAL-Lius, a zealous defender of the ancient superstition. in which these two champions were to plead publicly in behalf of their respective opinions, that it might thus be seen on which side the truth The dispute, in which Olaus obtained a signal victory, contributed much to confirm Gustavus in his persuasion of the truth of LUTHER's doctrine, and to promote the progress of that doctrine in Sweden. In the year following, another event gave the finishing stroke to its propagation and success, and this was the assembly of the states at Westeraas, where Gustavus recommended the doctrine of the reformers with such zeal, wisdom, and piety, that, after warm debates fomented by the clergy in general, and much opposition on the part of the bishops in particular, it was unanimously resolved, that the plan of reformation proposed by Luther should have free

> Gustavus no sooner returned to Stockholm than he ordered the leaders of these fanatics to be seized and punished, and covered the Lutherans with bitter reproaches for not having op-

posed these fanatics in time.

[n] It is very remarkable, and shews the equity and candour of Gustavus in the most striking point of light, that while he ordered Olaus to publish his literal translation of the sacred writings, he gave permission at the same time to the archbishop of Upsal, to prepare another version suited to the doctrine of the church of Rome; that, by a careful comparison of both translations with the original, an easier access might be opened to the truth. The bishops at first opposed this order, but were at length obliged to submit.

free admittance among the Swedes [o]. This re-C ENT. solution was principally owing to the firmness and magnanimity of Gustavus, who declared publicly, that he would lay down his sceptre and retire from his kingdom, rather than rule a people enslaved to the orders and authority of the pope, and more controlled by the tyranny of their bishops, than by the laws of their monarch [p]. From this time the papal empire in Sweden was entirely overturned, and Gustavus declared head of the church.

XXXI. The light of the Reformation was also In Denterocived in Denmark, and that so early as the year mark, 1521, in consequence of the ardent desire discovered by Christian or Christian II. of having Vol. IV.

[0] It was no wonder indeed that the bishops opposed warmly the proposal of Gustavus, since there was no country in Europe where that order and the clergy in general drew greater temporal advantages from the superstition of the times than in Sweden and Denmark. - The most of the bishops had revemes superior to those of the sovereign, they possessed castles and fattesses that rendered them independent on the crown, enabled them to excite commotions in the kingdom, and gave them a degree of power that was dangerous to the state. They lived in the most dissolute luxury and overgrown opulence, while the sobility of the kingdom were in misery and want. —The resolution formed by the states assembled at Westeraas, did not so much tend to regulate points of doctrine as to reform the discipline of the church, to reduce the opulence and authority of the bishops within their proper bounds, to restore to the impoverished nobility the lands and possessions that their superstitions ancestors had given to an all-devouring clergy, to exclude the prelates from the senate, to take from them their castles. and things of that nature. It was however resolved, at the same time, that the church should be provided with able pastors, who should explain the pure word of God to the people in their native tongue; and that no ecclesiastical preferments should be granted without the king's permission. This was a tacit and gentle method of promoting the Reformation.

[p] Bazii Inventarium Eccles. Sueco-Gothor. published in 4to at Lincoping, in 1642.—Sculteti Annales Evangel'i Renovati, in Von der Hardt Histor. Liter. Reformat. part V. p. 84. et 110.—Raynal; Anecdotes Hist. politiques et Militaires, tom. i.

part. II. p. 1, &c.

CENT. his subjects instructed in the principles and doctrines of Luther. This monarch, whose savage and infernal cruelty (whether it was the effect of natural temper, or of bad counsels) rendered his name odious and his memory execrable, was nevertheless desirous of delivering his dominions from the superstition and tyranny of Rome. For this purpose, in the year 1520, he sent for Mar-TIN REINARD, one of the disciples of CARLOSTADT, out of Saxony, and appointed him professor of divinity at Hafnia; and after his death, which happened the year following, he invited CAR-LOSTADT, himself to fill that important place, which he accepted indeed, but nevertheless, after a short residence in Denmark, returned into Germany. These disappointments did not abate the reforming spirit of the Danish monarch, who used his utmost endeavours, though in vain, to engage Luther to visit his dominions, and took several steps that tended to the diminution, and indeed, to the suppression of the jurisdiction exercised over his subjects by the Roman pontif.

It is, however, proper to observe, that in all these proceedings Christiern II. was animated by no other motive than that of ambition. It was the prospect of extending his authority, and not a zeal for the advancement of true religion, that gave life and vigour to his reforming projects.

His very actions, independently of what may be concluded from his known character, evidently shew that he protected the religion of LUTHER with no other view than to rise by it to supremacy both in church and state; and that it might afford him a pretext for depriving the bishops of that overgrown authority and those ample possessions which they had gradually usurped [q], and O

<sup>[</sup>q] See Jo. Grammii Diss. de Reformatione Daniæ à Chris. tierno tentata, in the third volume of the Scriptores Societ. Scien viar. Hafniens. p. 1-90.

of appropriating them to himself. A revolution C E N T. produced by his avarice, tyranny, and cruelty, S z C T. J. prevented the execution of this bold enterprize. The States of the kingdom exasperated, some by the schemes he had laid for destroying the liberty of Denmark, others by his attempts to abolish the superstition of their ancestors [r], and all by his savage and barbarous treatment of those who dared to oppose his avarice or ambition, formed a conspiracy against him in the year 1523, by which he was deposed and banished from his dominions, and his uncle, FREDERICK duke of Holstein and Sleswic, placed on the throne of Denmark.

XXXII. This prince conducted matters with The promuch more equity, prudence, and moderation, gress of the than his predecessor had done. He permitted the tion under protestant doctors to preach publicly the opinions of Fredeof LUTHER [s], but did not venture so far as to ric and change the established government and discipline Christician of the church. He contributed, however, greatly to the progress of the Reformation, by his successful attempts in favour of religious liberty, at the assembly of the states that was held at Odensee in the year 1527. For it was here that he procured the publication of that famous edict, which declared every subject of Denmark free, either to adhere to the tenets of the church of Rome, or to embrace

[1] See Jo. Molleri Cimbria Liverata, tom. ii. p. 886.—Carist. Olivarii Vita Pauli Elia, p. 108.—Erici Pontoppidani 21/1nales Ecclesiæ Danicæ, tom. iii. p 139.

<sup>[</sup>r] See for a confirmation of this part of the accusation, a cunous piece, containing the reasons that induced the states of Denmark to renounce their allegiance to Christiern II. This piece is to be found in the fifth volume of Ludewig's compilation, entitled, Reliquiæ MStorum, p. 515. in which (p. 321.) the states of Denmark express their displeasure at the royal favour shewn to the Lutherans in the following terms: "Lutherana haresis pullatores, contra jus pietatemque, in regnum nostrum catholicum introduxit, doctorem Carolostadium, fortissimum Lutheri athletam, enutrivit."

CENT embrace the doctrine of LUTHER [t]. Encouraged S R C T. I. by this resolution, the protestant divines exercised the functions of their ministry with such zeal and success, that the greatest part of the Danes opened their eyes upon the auspicious beams of sacred liberty, and abandoned gradually both the doctrines and jurisdiction of the church of Rome. But the honour of finishing this glorious work, of destroying entirely the reign of superstition, and breaking asunder the bonds of papal tyranny, was reserved for Christiern III. a prince equally distinguished by his piety and prudence. He began by suppressing the despotic authority of the bishops, and by restoring to their lawful owners a great part of the wealth and possessions which the church had acquired by the artful stratagems of the crafty and designing clergy. This step was followed by a wise and well-judged settlement of religious doctrine, discipline, and worship, throughout the kingdom, according to a plan laid down by Bugenhagius, whom the king had sent for from Wittemberg to perform that arduous task, for which his eminent piety, learning, and moderation rendered him peculiarly proper. The assembly of the states at Odensee, in the year 1539, gave a solemn sanction to all these transactions; and thus the work of the Reformation was brought to perfection in Denmark [u]. XXXIII. It

should be molested on account of his religion, that a royal protection should be granted to the Lutherans to defend them from the insults and malignity of their enemies; and that ecclesiastics, of whatever rank or order, should be permitted to enter into the married state, and to fix their residence wherever they thought proper, without any regard to monasteries or other religious societies.

[u] Erici Pontoppidani, see a German work of the learned Pontoppidan, entitled, A Compendious view of the History of the Reformation in Denmark, published at Lubec in Evo, in 1734; as also the Annales Ecclesiae Danica, of the

Same

## CHAP. II. The History of the Reformation.

XXXIII. It is however to be observed, that, in C E N T. the history of the reformation of Sweden and Den- SECT. I. mark, we must carefully distinguish between the reformation of religious opinions and the reform-A distincation of the episcopal order. For though these observed two things may appear to be closely connected, when we yet, in reality, they are so far distinct, that either the reforof the two might have been completely transacted mation of without the other. A reformation of doctrine and Denmight have been effected without diminishing the mark. authority of the bishops, or suppressing their order; and, on the other hand, the opulence and power of the bishops might have been reduced within proper bounds, without introducing any change into the system of doctrine that had been so long established, and that was generally received [w]. In the measure's taken in these northern kingdoms, for the reformation of a corrupt doctrine and a superstitious discipline, there was nothing that deserved the smallest censure: neither fraud nor violence were employed for this purpose; on the contrary, all things were conducted with wisdom and moderation, in a manner suitable to the dictates of equity and the spirit of Christianity. The same judgment cannot easily be pronounced with respect to the methods of proceeding in the reformation of the clergy, and more especially of the episcopal order. For here, certainly,

de Reformat. religionis in vicinis Daniæ regionibus et potissimum in Cimbria, in ejus Dissertationibus Historico-Theologicis." p. 24. Killiæ, 1715, in 4to.

gacity. The strong connexion that there naturally is between superstitious ignorance among the people, and influence and power in their spiritual rulers, is too evident to stand in need of any proof. A good clergy will, or ought to have an influence, in consequence of a respectable office adorned with learning, piety, and morals; but the power of a licentious and despotic clergy can be only supported by the blind and superstitious credulity of their flock.

c B N T certainly, violence was used, and the bishops were kvi.

deprived of their honours, privileges, and posisessions, without their consent; and, indeed, notwithstanding the greatest struggles and the warmest opposition [x]. The truth is, that so far as the reformation in Sweden and Denmark regarded the privileges and possessions of the bishops, it was rather a matter of political expediency than of religious obligation; nay, a change here was become so necessary, that, had Luther and his doctrine never appeared in the world, it must have been nevertheless attempted by a wise legislator. For the bishops, by a variety of perfidious stratagems, had got into their hands such enormous

What does Dr Mosheim mean here? did ever a usurper give us his unjust possessions without reluctance? does rapine constitute a right, when it is maintained by force? is it unlawful to use violence against extortioners? The question here is, Whether or no the bishops deserved the severe treatment they received from Christiern III.? and our author seems to answer this question in the affirmative, and to declare this treatment both just and necessary in the following part of this section. Certain it is, that the bishops were treated with great severity, deposed from their sees, imprisoned on account of their resistance; all the church-lands, towns, and fortresses, annexed to the crown, and the temporal power of the clergy for ever It is also certain, that Luther himself looked upon these measures as violent and excessive, and even wrote a letter to Christiern, exhorting him to use the clergy with more leni-It is therefore proper to decide with moderation on this subject, and to grant, that if the insolence and licentiousness of the clergy were enormous, the resentment of the Danish monarch may have been excessive. Nor indeed was his political prudence here so great as Dr Mosheim seems to represent it; for the equipoise of government was hurt by a total suppression of the power of the bishops. The nobility acquired by this a prodigious degree of influence, and the crown lost an order, which, under proper regulations, might have been rendered one of the strongest supports of its prerogative. But disquisitions of this nature are foreign to our purpose. It is only proper to observe, that, in the room of the bishops, Christiern created an order of men, with the denomination of Superintendants, who performed the spiritual part of the episcopal office, without sharing the least shadow of temporal authority.

enormous treasures, such ample possessions, socent. many castles and fortified towns, and had assumed SECT. I. such an unlimited and despotic authority, that they were in a condition to give law to the sovereign himself, to rule the nation as they thought proper; and in effect, already abused their power so far as to appropriate to themselves a considerable part of the royal patrimony, and of the public revenues of the kingdom. Such therefore was the critical state of these northern kingdoms, in the time of Luther, that it became absolutely necessary, either to degrade the bishops from that rank which they dishonoured, and to deprive them of the greatest part of those possessions ' and prerogatives which they had so unjustly acquired and so licentiously abused, or to see, tamely, royalty rendered contemptible by its weakness, the sovereign deprived of the means of protecting and succouring his people, and the commonwealth exposed to rebellion, misery, and tuin.

XXXIV. The kingdom of France was not in-The rise accessible to the light of the Reformation. Mar-and progress of the GARET queen of Navarre, sister to Francis I. reformation the implacable enemy and perpetual rival of in France. CHARLES V. was extremely favourable to the new doctrine, which delivered pure and genuine Christianity from a great part of the superstitions under which it had so long lain disguised. The auspicious patronage of this illustrious princess encouraged several pious and learned men, whose religious sentiments were the same with her's, to propagate the principles of the Reformation in France, and even to erect several protestant churches in that kingdom. It is manifest from the most authentic records, that, so early as the year 1523, there were, in several of the provinces of that country, multitudes of persons, who had conceived the utmost aversion both against the G-4 doctrine

KVI. SECT. I. many persons of rank and dignity, and even some of the episcopal order. As their numbers increased from day to day, and troubles and commotions were excited in several places on account of religious differences, the authority of the monarch and the cruelty of his officers intervened, to support the doctrine of Rome by the edge of the sword and the terrors of the gibbet; and on this occasion many persons, eminent for their piety and virtue, were put to death with the most unrelenting barbarity [y]. This cruelty, instead of retarding, accelerated rather the progress of the Reformation. It is nevertheless true, that, under the reign of Francis I. the restorers of genuine Christianity were not always equally successful and Their situation was extremely uncertain. and it was perpetually changing. Sometimes they seemed to enjoy the auspicious shade of royal protection; at others they groaned under the weight of persecution, and at certain seasons they were forgot, which oblivion rendered their condition tolerable. Francis, who had either no religion at all, or, at best, no fixed and consistent system of religious principles, conducted himself towards the protestants in such a manner as answered his private and personal views, or as reasons of policy and a public interest seemed to require. When it became necessary to engage in his cause the German protestants, in order to foment sedition and rebellion against his mortal enemy CHARLES V. then did he treat the protestants in France with the utmost equity, humanity, and gentleness; but so soon as he had gained his point, and had no more occasion for their services, then he threw

off

<sup>[</sup>y] See Beze, Histoire des Eglises Reformées de France, tont i. livr. i. p. 5.—Benoit, Histoire de l'Edit de Nantes, livr. i. p. 6.—Christ. Aug. Salig. Histor. August. Confession, vol. ii. p. 190.

of

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off the mask, and appeared to them in the aspect CENT. of an implacable and persecuting tyrant [z].

About this time the famous Calvin, whose character, talents, and religious exploits, we shall have occasion to dwell upon more amply in the course of this history, began to draw the attention of the public, but more especially of the queen of Navarre. He was born at Noyon in Picardy, on the 10th of July 1509, and was bred up to the law [a], in which, as well as in all the other branches of literature, then known, his studies were attended with the most rapid and amazing success. Having acquired the knowledge of religion, by a diligent perusal of the holy scriptures, he began early to perceive the necessity of reforming the established system of doctrine and worship. His zeal exposed him to various perils, and the connexions he had formed with the friends of the Reformation, whom Francis I. was daily committing to the flames, placed him more than ' once in imminent danger, from which he was delivered by the good offices of the excellent queen

ble in the conduct of Francis I. may be attributed to various reasons. At one time, we see him resolved to invite Melancthon into France, probably with a view to please his sister the queen of Navarre, whom he loved tenderly, and who had strongly imbibed the principles of the protestants. At another time, we behold him exercising the most infernal cruelty towards the friends of the Reformation, and hear him making that mad declaration, that, "if he thought the blood in his arm was tainted with the Lutheran heresy, he would have it cut off; and that he would not spare even his own children, if they entertained sentiments contrary to those of the catholic church." See Flor. de Remond, Hist. de la Naissance et du Progres de l'Heresie, livr. vii-

[a] He was originally designed for the church, and had actually obtained a benefice; but the light that broke in upon his religious sentiments, as well as the preference given by his father to the profession of the law, induced him to give up his ecclesiastic vocation, which he afterwards resumed in a purer church.

CENT of Navarre. To escape the impending storm, he SECT. I. retired to Basil, where he published his Christian institutions; and prefixed to them that famous dedication to Francis I. which has attracted universally the admiration of succeeding ages, and which was designed to soften the unrelenting fury of that prince, against the protestants [b].

of Europe.

And in the XXXV. The instances of an opposition to the of Europe doctrine and discipline of Rome in the other European states, were few in number, before the diet of Augsburg, and were too faint, imperfect, and ambiguous to make much noise in the world. however, appears from the most authentic testimonies, that, even before that period, the doctrine of Luther had made a considerable, though perhaps a secret, progress in Spain, Hungary, Bohemia, Britain, Poland, and the Netherlands, and had, in all these countries, many friends, of whom several repaired to Wittemberg, to improve their knowledge and enlarge their views under such an eminent master. Some of these countries openly broke asunder the chains of superstition, and withdrew themselves, in a public and constitutional manner, from the jurisdiction of the Roman pontif. In others, a prodigious number of families received the light of the blessed Reformation, rejected the doctrines and authority of Rome; and, notwithstanding the calamities and persecutions they have suffered, on account of their sentiments, under the sceptre of bigotry and superstition,

> [b] This paragraph relating to Calvin, is added to Dr Mosheim's text by the translator, who was surprised to find, in a History of the Reformation, such late mention made of one of its most distinguished and remarkable instruments; a man whose extensive genius, flowing eloquence, immense learning, extraordinary penetration, indefatigable industry, and fervent piety, placed him at the head of the Reformers; all of whom he surpassed, at least, in learning and parts, as he also did the most of them in obstinacy, asperity, and turbulence.

superstition, continue still in the profession of CENT. The pure doctrine of Christianity; while in other, SECT. I. still more unhappy, lands, the most barbarous tortures, the most infernal spirit of cruelty, together with penal laws adapted to strike terror into the firmest minds, have extinguished, almost totally, the light of religious truth. It is, indeed, certain, and the Roman catholics themselves acknowledge it without hesitation, that the papal doctrines, jurisdiction, and authority, would have fallen into ruin in all parts of the world, had not the force of the secular arm been employed to support this tottering edifice, and fire and sword been let loose upon those who were assailing it only with reason and argument.

## CHAP. III.

The History of the Reformation, from the time that the confession of Augsburg was presented to the emperor, until the commencement of the war which succeeded the league of Smalcald.

I. CHARLES V. arrived at Augsburg the 15th The conformal of June 1530, and on the 20th day of Augsburg the same month, the diet was opened. As it was presented unanimously agreed, that the affairs of religion to Charles should be brought upon the carpet before the deliberations relating to the intended war with the Turks, the protestant members of this great assembly received from the emperor a formal permission to present to the diet, on the 25th of June, an account of their religious principles and tenets. In consequence of this, Christian Bayer, chancellor of Saxony, read, in the German language, in presence of the emperor and the assembled princes, the famous confession, which has been since

CENT. since distinguished by the denomination of the XVI. Confession of Augsburg. The princes heard it with the deepest attention and recollection of mind; it confirmed some in the principles they had embraced, surprised others, and many, who, before this time, had little or no idea of the religious sentiments of Luther, were now not only convinced of their innocence, but were, moreover, delighted with their purity and simplicity. The copies of this confession, which, after being read, were delivered to the emperor, were signed and subscribed by John, elector of Saxony, by four princes of the empire, George, marquis of Brandenburg, ERNEST, duke of Lunenburg, PHILIP, landgrave of Hesse, Wolfgang, prince of Anhalt, and by the imperial cities of Nuremburg and Reutlingen, who all thereby solemnly declared their assent to the doctrines contained in it [c].

The nature and contents of the confession of Augsburg.

II. The tenor and contents of the confession of Augsburg are well known; at least, by all who have the smallest acquaintance with ecclesiastical history; since that confession was adopted by the whole body of the protestants as the rule of their faith. The style that reigns in it is plain, elegant, grave, and perspicuous, such as becomes the nature of the subject, and such as might be expected from the admirable pen of Melancthon. The matter was, undoubtedly, supplied by Luther, who, during the diet, resided at Coburg, a town in

There is a very voluminous History of this diet, which was published in the year 1577, in folio, at Frankfort on Oder, by the laborious George Celestine. The History of The Confession of Augsburg, was composed in Latin by David Chytræus, and more recently in German, by Ern. Solom. Cyprian and Christopher. Aug. Salig. The performance of the latter is rather, indeed, a history of the Reformation in general, than of the Confession of Augsburg in particular. That of Cyprian is more concise and elegant, and is confirmed by original pieces, which are equally authentic and curious.

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in the neighbourhood of Augsburg; and, even the CENT. form it received from the eloquent pen of his colleague, was authorised in consequence of his approbation and advice. This confession contains twenty-eight chapters, of which the greatest part [d] are employed in representing, with perspicuity and truth, the religious opinions of the protestants, and the rest in pointing out the errors and abuses that occasioned their separation from the church of Rome [e].

HI. The creatures of the Roman pontif, who The Rowere present at this diet, employed John Faber, man catholics afterwards bishop of Vienna, together with Eck-a refutation, and another doctor named ochlass, to draw tion of the confession up a refutation of this famor confession. This of Arosa pretended refutation having been read publicly burg in the assembly, demanded of the protestant members that they would acquiesce in it, and put an end to their religious debates by an unlimited submission to the doctrines and opinions contained in this answer. But this demand was far

[d] Twenty-one chapters were so employed; the other seven contained a detail of the errors and superstitions of the church of Rome.

\* [e] It is proper to observe here, that, while the Lutherans presented their confession to the diet, another excellent remonstrance of the same nature was addressed to this august assembly by the cities of Strasburg, Constance, Memingen, and Lindaw, which had rejected the errors and jurisdiction of Rome, but did not enter into the Lutheran league, because they adopted the opinions of Zuingle in relation to the eucharist. The declaration of these four towns (which was called the Tetrapolitan Confession, on account of their number) was drawn up by the excellent Martin Bucer, and was considered as a masterpiece of reasoning and eloquence, not only by the protestants, but even by several of the Koman catholics; and among others by Mr Dupin. Zuingle also sent to this diet a private confession of his religious opinions. It is, however, remarkable, that though Bucer composed a separate remonstrance, yet his name appears among the subscribers at Smalcald, in the year 1537, to the confession of Augsburg, and to Melanethon's defence of it.

CENT. far from being complied with. The protestants S x c T. I. declared, on the contrary, that they were by no means satisfied with the reply of their adversaries, and earnestly desired a copy of it, that they might demonstrate more fully its extreme insufficiency and weakness. This reasonable request was refused by the emperor, who, on this occasion, as well as on several others, shewed more regard to the importunity of the pope's legate and his party, than to the demands of equity, candour, and justice. He even interposed his supreme authority to suspend any further proceeding in this matter, and solemnly prohibited the publication of any new writings or declarations that might contribute to lengthen out these religious debates. This, however, did not reduce the protestants to silence. The divines of that communion, who had been present at the diet, endeavoured to recollect the arguments and objections employed by Faber, and had again recourse to the pen of MELANCTHON, who refuted them, in an ample and satisfactory manner, in a learned piece that was presented to the emperor on the 22d of September, but which that prince refused to receive. This answer was afterwards enlarged by MELANC-THON, when he had obtained a copy of FABER'S reply, and was published in the year 1531, with the other pieces that related to the doctrine and discipline of the Lutheran church, under the title of A defence of the Confession of Augsburg.

Deliberaerning the ernaious.

IV. There were only three ways left of bringing to a conclusion these religious differences, method to which, it was, in reality, most difficult to reconbe used in cile. The first and the most rational method was, terminating to grant to those who refused to submit to the gious dis- doctrine and jurisdiction of Rome, the liberty of following their private judgment in matters of a religious nature, the privilege of serving God according

according to the dictates of their conscience, and CENT. all this in such a manner that the public tranquil- SECT. I, lity should not be disturbed. The second, and, at the same time, the shortest and most iniquitous expedient, was to end these dissensions by military apostles, who, sword in hand, should force the protestants to return to the bosom of the church, and to court the papal yoke, which they had so magnanimously thrown off their necks. Some thought of a middle way, which lay equally remote from the difficulties that attended the two methods now mentioned, and proposed that a reconciliation should be made upon fair, candid, and equitable terms, by engaging each of the contending parties to temper their zeal with moderation, to abate reciprocally the rigour of their pretensions, and remit some of their respective claims. This method, which seemed agreeable to the dictates of reason, charity, and justice, was highly approved of by several wise and good men, on, both sides; but it was ill-suited to the arrogant ambition of the Roman pontif, and the su-Perstitious ignorance of the times, which beheld with horror, whatever tended to introduce the sweets of religious liberty, or the exercise of private judgment. The second method, even the use of violence, and the terrors of the sword, was more agreeable to the spirit and sentiments of the age, and was peculiarly suited to the despotic genius and sanguine counsels of the court of Rome; but the emperor had prudence and equity enough to make him reject it, and it appeared shocking to those who were not lost to all sentiments of justice or moderation. The third expedient was therefore most generally approved of; it was peculiarly agreeable to all who were zealous for the interests and tranquility of the empire, nor did the Roman pontif seem to look upon it either with aversion or contempt. Hence various conCENT. ferences were held between persons of eminence Szcr. I. piety, and learning, who were chosen for that purpose from both sides, and nothing was omitted that might have the least tendency to calm the animosity, heal the divisions, and unite the hearts of the contending parties [f]; but all to no purpose, since the difference between their opinions was too considerable, and of too much importance, to admit of a reconciliation. It was in these conferences that the spirit and character of MELANC-THON appeared in their true and genuine colours; and it was here that the votaries of Rome exhausted their efforts to gain over to their party this pillar of the Reformation, whose abilities and virtues added such a lustre to the protestant cause. This humane and gentle spirit was apt to sink into a kind of yielding softness under the influence of mild and generous treatment. And accordingly, while his adversaries soothed him with fair words and flattering promises, he seemed to meltas they spoke, and, in some measure, to comply with their demands: but when they so far forgot themselves as to make use of imperious language

> [f] As in the Confession of Augsburg there were three sorts of articles, one sort orthodox, and adopted by both sides, another that consisted of certain propositions, which the papel party considered as ambiguous and obscure; and a third, in which the doctrine of Luther was entirely opposite to that of Rome; this gave some reason to hope, that by the means of certain concessions and modifications, conducted mutually by a spirit of candour and charity, matters might be accommodated at last. For this purpose, select persons were appointed to carry on this salutary work, at first seven from each party, consisting of princes, lawyers, and divines, which number was afterwards reduced to three. Luther's obstinate, stubborn, and violent temper, rendering him unfit for healing divisions, he was not employed in these conferences, but he was constantly consulted by the Protestant party; and it was with a view to this that he resided at Coburg.

> and menacing terms, then did Melancthon ap-

pear in a very different point of light; then

a spirit of intrepidity, ardor, and independence CENT. animated all his words and actions, and he ook- XVI. ed down with contempt on the threats of p w r, the frowns of fortune, and the fear of death. The truth is, that, in this great and good man, a soft and yielding temper was joined with the most inviolable fidelity, and the most invincible attachment to the truth.

V. This reconciling method of terminating the The result religious debates, between the friends of liberty of these conferenand the votaries of Rome, proving ineffectual, the cos. latter had recourse to other measures, which were suited to the iniquity of the times, though they were equally disavowed by the dictates of reason and the precepts of the gospel. These measures were, the force of the secular arm, and the authonty of imperial edicts. On the 19th day of November, a severe decree was issued out, by the express order of the emperor, during the absence of the Hessian and Saxon princes, who were the chief supporters of the protestant cause; and, in this decree, every thing was manifestly adapted to deject the friends of religious liberty, if we except a faint and dubious promise of engaging the pope to assemble (in about six months after the separation of the diet) a general council. The dignity and excellence of the papal religion are extolled, beyond measure, in this partial decree; a new decree of severity and force added to that which had been published at Worms against Lu-THER and his adherents; the changes that had been introduced into the doctrine and discipline of the protestant churches, severely censured; and a solemn order addressed to the princes, states, and cities, that had thrown off the papal yoke, to return to their duty and their allegiance to Rome, on pain of incurring the indignation and vengeance VOL, IV. of

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ENT. of the emperor, as the patron and protector of SECT. I. the church [8].

of Smalcald.

VI. No sooner were the elector of Saxony and The league the confederate princes informed of this deplorable issue of the diet of Augsburg, than they assembled in order to deliberate upon the measures that were proper to be taken on this critical occasion. In the year 1530, and the year following, they met, first at Smalcald, afterwards at Francfort, and formed a solemn alliance and confederacy, with the intention of defending vigorously their religion and liberties against the dangers and encroachments with which they were menaced by the edict of Augsburg, without attempting, however, any thing, properly speaking, offensive against the votaries of Rome. Into this confederacy they invited the kings of England, France, and Denmark, with several other republics and states, and left no means unemployed that might tend to corroborate and cement this important alliance [b]. Amidst these emotions and preparations,

> If [g] To give the greater degree of weight to this edict it was resolved, that no judge who refused to approve and subscribe its contents, should be admitted into the imperial chamber of Spire, which is the supreme court in Germany. The emperor also, and the popish princes engaged themselves to employ their united forces in order to maintain its authority, and and to promote its execution.

> [b] Luther, who at first seemed averse to this confederacy, from an apprehension of the calamities and troubles it might produce, perceiving at length its necessity, consented to it; but, uncharitably, as well as imprudently, refused comprehending in it the followers of Zuingle among the Swiss, together with the German states or cities, which had adopted the sentiments and confession of Bucer. And yet we find that the cities of Ulm and Augsburg had embraced the Reformation on the principles of Zuingle.—In the invitation addressed to Henry VIII. king of England, whom the confederate princes were willing to declare the head and protector of their league, the following things were expressly stipulated among several others: viz. That the king should encourage, promote, and maintain the true doctrine of Christ, as it was contained

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the elector Palatine, and the elector of Mentz, offered their mediation, and endeavoured to reconcile the contending princes. With respect to the emperor, various reasons united to turn his views towards peace. For, on the one hand, he stood in need of succours against the Turk, which the protestant princes refused to grant as long as the edicts of Worms and Augsburg remained in force; and, on the other, the election of his brother Fernonand to the dignity of king of the Romans, which had been concluded by a majority of votes, H 2

contained in the confession of Augsburg, and defend the same at the next general council;—that he should not agree to any council summoned by the bishop of Rome, but protest against it, and neither submit to its decrees, nor suffer them to be respected in his dominions;—that he should never allow the Roman pontif to have any pre-eminence or jurisdiction in his dominions;—that he should advance 100,000 crowns for the use of the confederacy, and double that sum if it became necessary; all which articles the confederate princes were obliged equally to observe on their part. To these demands the king answered, immediately, in a manner that was not satisfactory. He declared, that he would maintain and promote the true doctrine of Christ; but, at the same time, as the true ground of that doctrine lay only in the Holy Scriptures, he would not accept, at any one's hand, what should be his faith, or that of his kingdoms, and therefore desired they would send over learned men to confer with him, in order to promote a religious union between him and the confederates. He moreover declared himself of their opinion with respect to the meeting of a free general council, promised to join with them, in all such councils, for the defence of the true doctrine; but thought the regulation of the ceremonial part of religion, being a matter of indifference, ought to be left to the choice of each sovereign for his own dominions. After this, the king gave them a second answer more full and satisfactory; but upon the fall of queen Anne, this negociation came to nothing. On the one hand, the king grew cold, when he perceived that the confederates could be of no longer service to him in supporting the validity of his marriage; and, on the other, the German princes were sensible that they could never succeed with Henry, unless they would allow him an absolute dictatorship in matters of religion.

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CENT. at the diet of Cologn, in the year 1531, was contested by the same princes as contrary to the fundamental laws of the empire.

The peace perg.

VII. In this troubled state of affairs many proof urem-jects of reconciliation were proposed; and, after various negociations, a treaty of peace was concluded at Nuremberg, in the year 1532, between the emperor and the protestant princes, on the following conditions; that the latter should furnish a subsidy for carrying on the war against the Turk, and acknowledge Ferdinand lawful king of the Romans; and that the emperor, on his part, should abrogate and annul the edicts of Worms and Augsburg, and allow the Lutherans the free and unmolested exercise of their religious doctrine and discipline, until a rule of faith was fixed either in the free general council that was to be assembled in the space of six months, or in a diet of the empire. The apprehension of an approaching rupture was scarcely removed by this agreement, when John, elector of Saxony, died, and was succeeded by his son John Frederick, a prince of invincible fortitude and magnanimity, whose reign was little better than a continued. scene of disappointments and calamities.

A council expected in vain.

VIII. The religious truce, concluded at Nuremberg, inspired with new vigour and resolution all the friends of the reformation. It gave strength to the feeble, and perseverance to the bold. Encouraged by it, those who had been hitherto only secret enemies to the Roman pontif, spurned now his yoke publicly, and refused to submit to his imperious jurisdiction. This appears from the various cities and provinces in Germany, which, about this time, boldly enlisted themselves under the religious standards of LUTHER. On the other hand, as all hope of terminating the religious debates that divided Europe was founded in the meeting of the general council, which had been

so solemnly promised, the emperor renewed his CENT. earnest requests to CLEMENT VII. that he would xvi. hasten an event that was expected and desired with Srcr. I. so much impatience. The pontif, whom the history of past councils filled with the most uneasy and discouraging apprehensions, endeavoured to retard what he could not, with any decency, absolutely refuse [i]. He formed innumerable pretexts to put off the evil day; and his whole conduct evidently shewed, that he was more desirous of having these religious differences decided by the force of arms, than by the power of argument. He indeed, in the year 1533, made a proposal, by his legate, to assemble a council at Mantua, Placentia, or Bologna; but the protestants refused their consent to the nomination of an Italian council, and insisted, that a controversy, which had its rise in the heart of Germany, should be decided within the limits of the empire. The pope, by his usual artifices, eluded his own promise, disappointed their expectations, and was cut off by death, in the year 1534, in the midst of his stratagems [k].

IX. His successor Paul III. seemed to shew less reluctance to the assembling a general council, and appeared even disposed to comply with the desires of the emperor in that respect. Accordingly, in the year 1535, he expressed his inclination to convoke one at *Mantua*; and, the H 3 year

general council, another reason engaged Clement VII. to avoid an assembly of that nature; for being conscious of the illegitimacy of his birth, as Frao Paulo observes, he had ground to fear that the Colonnas, or his other enemies, might plead this circumstance before the council, as a reason for his exclusion from the pontificate; since it might be well questioned whether a bastard could be a pope, though it is known, from many instances, that a profligate may.

[4] See an ample account of every thing relative to this council, in FRA. PAULO's History of the council of Trent, book L.

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CENT. year following, actually sent circular letters for S \* T. I that purpose through all the kingdoms and states under his jurisdiction [1]. The protestants, on the other hand, fully persuaded, that, in such a council [m], all things would be carried by the votaries of Rome, and nothing concluded but what should be agreeable to the sentiments and ambition of the pontif, assembled at Smalcald in the And there they protested solemnly year 1537. against such a partial and corrupt council as that which was convoked by PAUL III. but, at the same time, had a new summary of their doctrine drawn up by LUTHER, in order!to present it to the assembled bishops, if it was required of them. This summary, which was distinguished by the title of the Articles of Smalcald, is generally joined with the creeds and confessions of the Lutheran church.

New outrages committed by the Anabaptists.

X. During these transactions, two remarkable events happened, of which the one was most detrimental to the cause of religion in general, to that of the Reformation in particular, and produced, in Germany, civil tumults and commotions of the most horrid kind; while the other was more salutary in its consequences and effects, and struck at the very root of the papal authority and dominion. The former of these events was a new

[1] This council was summoned by Paul III. to assemble at Mantua, on the 23d of May, 1537, by a bull issued out the 2d of June of the preceding year. Several obstacles prevented its meeting. Frederick, duke of Mantua, was not much inclined to receive at once so many guests, and some of them turbulent ones, into the place of his residence.

That is, in a council assembled by the authority of the pope alone, and that also in Italy; two circumstances that must have greatly contributed to give Paul III. an undue influence in that assembly. The protestants maintained, that the emperor and the other Christian princes of Europe had a right to be authoritatively concerned in calling a general council; and that so much the more, as the Roman pontif was evidently one, of the parties in the present debate.

a new sedition, kindled by a fanatical and out-CENT. rageous mob of the anabaptists; and the latter, SECT. I. the rupture between Henry VIII. king of England, and the Roman pontif, whose jurisdiction and spiritual supremacy were publicly renounced by that rough and resolute monarch.

In the year 1533, there came to Munster, 2 city in Westphalia, a certain number of anabaptists, who surpassed the rest of that fanatical tribe in the extravagance of their proceedings, the frenzy of their disordered brains, and the madness of their pretensions and projects. They gave themselves out for the messengers of heaven, invested with a divine commission to lay the foundations of a new government, a holy and spiritual empire, and to destroy and overturn all temporal rule and authority, all human and political institutions. Having turned all things into confusion and uproar in the city of Munster by this seditious and extravagant declaration, they began to erect a new republic [n], conformable to their absurd and chimerical notions of religion, and committed the administration of it to John Bockholt, a taylor by profession, and a native of Leyden. Their reign, however, was of a short duration; for, in the year 1535, the city was besieged and taken by the bishop of Munster, assisted by other German princes; this fanatical king and his wrong-headed associates Put to death in the most terrible and ignominious manner, and the new hierarchy destroyed with its furious and extravagant founders. This disorderly and outrageous conduct of an handful of anabaptists, drew upon the whole body heavy marks of displeasure from the greatest part of the European The severest laws were enacted against them for the second time, in consequence of which the innocent and the guilty were involved in the H 4 same

[n] This fanatical establishment they distinguished by the title of the New Jerusalem.

CENT same terrible fate, and prodigious numbers devo-

ted to death in the most dreadful forms [o]. SECT. 1.

risdiction and supremacy of the Roman pontif.

XI. The pillars of papal despotism were at this Great Britime shaken in England by an event, which, at neunces the first, did not seem to promise such important conspiritual ju-sequences. HENRY VIII. a prince who in vices and in abilities was surpassed by none who swayed the sceptre in this age, and who, in the beginning of these religious troubles. had opposed the doctrine and views of LUTHER with the utmost vehemence, was the principal agent in this great revolution [p]. Bound in the chains of matrimony to Catharine of Arragon, aunt to Charles V. but, at the same time, captivated by the charms of an illustrious virgin, whose name was ANNA Boleyn, he ardently desired to be divorced from the former, that he might render lawful his passion for the latter [q]. For this purpose, he addressed

> [o] HERMANNI HAMMELMANNI Historia Eccles. 'renati Evanzelii per inferiorem Saxoniam et Westphal. part II. p. 1196. opp.—DE PRINTZ Specimen Historia Anabapt. c. x, xi, xfi. p. 94.

> This sect was, in process of time, considerably reformed by the ministry of two Frieslanders, Ubbo and Mennon, who purified it from the enthusiastic, seditious, and atrocious principles of its first founders, as will be seen in the progress of

this history.

Among the various portraits that have been given by historians of Henry VIII. there is none that equals the masterly one drawn by Mr Hume, in his History of Enlgand, under the house of Tudor. This great painter, whose colouring, in other subjects, is sometimes more artful than accurate, has catched from nature the striking lines of Henry's motley character, and thrown them into a composition, in which they appear with the greatest truth, set out with all the powers of expression.

KP [q] From Dr Mosheim's manner of expressing himself, an uninformed reader might be led to conclude, that the charms of Anna Boleyn were the only motive that engaged Henry to dissolve his marriage with CATHARINE. But this representation of the matter is not accurate. The king had entertained scruples concerning the legitimacy of his marriage, before his acquaintance with the beautiful and unfortunate ANNA.

versant

himself to the Roman pontif CLEMENT VII. in CENT. order to obtain a dissolution of his marriage with SECT. I. CATHARINE, alleging, that a principle of religion restrained him from enjoying any longer the sweets of connubial love with that princess, as she had been previously married to his elder brother, ARTHUR, and as it was repugnant to the divine law to contract wedlock with a brother's widow. CLEMENT was greatly perplexed upon this occasion, by the apprehension of incurring the indignation of the emperor in case his decision was favourable to Henry; and therefore he contrived various pretexts to evade a positive answer, and exhausted all his policy and artifice to cajole and deceive the English monarch. Tired with the pretexts, apologies, vain promises, and tardy proceedings of the Roman pontif, Henry had recourse, for the accomplishment of his purposes, to an expedient which was suggested by the famous Thomas Cranmer, who was a secret friend to Luther and his cause, and who was afterwards raised to the see of Canterbury. This expedient was, to demand the opinions of the most learned European universities concerning the subject of his scruples. The result of this measure was favourable to his views. The greatest part of the universities declared

yersant in the writings of Thomas Aquinas and other schoolmen, who looked upon the Levitical law as of moral and permanent obligation, and attentive to the remonstrances of the bishops, who declared his marriage unlawful, the king was filled with anxious doubts that had made him break off all conjugal commerce with the queen, before his affections had been engaged by any other. This appears by Cardinal Wolsey's proposing a marriage between his majesty and the sister of Francis I. which that pliant courtier would never have done, had he known that the king's affections were otherwise engaged. After all, it is very possible, that the age and infirmities of Catharine, together with the blooming charms of Anna Boleyn, tended much to animate Henry's remorse, and to render his conscience more scrupulous. See Burnet's History of the Reformation. Hume's History of the house of Tudor, p. 150.

CENT clared the marriage with a brother's widow unlaw-SECT. I. ful. CATHARINE was consequently divorced; AN-NA conducted by a formal marriage into the royal bed, notwithstanding the remonstrances of CLEMENT; and the English nation delivered from the tyranny of Rome, by Henry's renouncing the jurisdiction and supremacy of its imperious pontif. Soon after this, HENRY was declared by the parliament and people supreme beal, on earth, of the church of England, the monasteries were suppressed, and their revenues applied to other purposes; and the power and authority of the pope were abrogated and entirely overturned [r].

The nature and effects ed this first seep towards the Reformation in England.

XII. It is however carefully to be observed here, that this downfal of the papal authority in England was not productive of much benefit either to the friends or to the cause of the Reformation. For the same monarch, who had so resolutely withdrawn himself from the dominion of Rome, yet superstitiously retained the greatest part of its errors, along with its imperious and persecuting spirit. He still adhered to several of the most monstrous doctrines of popery, and frequently presented the terrors of death to those who differed from him in their religious sentiments. Besides, he considered the title of Head of the English church, as if it transferred to him the enormous power which had been claimed, and indeed usurped, by the Roman pontifs; and, in consequence of this interpretation of his title, he looked upon himself as master of the religious sentiments of his subjects, and as authorised to prescribe modes

[r] Besides the full and accurate account of this and other important events that is to be found in Bishop Burnet's excellent History of the Reformation of the Church of England, the curious reader will do well to consult the records of this not movable revolution in Wilkin's Concil. Magnæ Britaniæ et Hibermæ, tom. iii. p. 424.—Rayval, Anecdo'es Historiques, Politiques, Miliaires, tem. i. part II. p. 90. Gen. Dictionary at the article Boleyn.

modes of faith according to his fancy. Hence it CENT came to pass, that, during the life and reign of SECT. I. this prince, the face of religion was constantly changing, and thus resembled the capricious and unsteady character of its new chief. The prudence, learning, and activity of CRANMER, archbishop of Canterbury, who was the favourite of the king, and the friend of the Reformation, counteracted, however, in many instances, the humour and vehemence of this inconstant and turbulent monarch. The pious productions and wise counsels of that venerable prelate diminished daily the influence of the ancient superstitions, dispelled by degrees the mists of ignorance that blinded the people in favour of popery, and increased considerably the number of those who wished well to the Reformation [s].

XIII. After the meeting of the council of A new pre-Mantua was prevented, various measures were diffication. taken, and many schemes proposed, by the emperor on the one hand, and the protestant princes on the other, for the restoration of concord and union, both civil and religious. But these measures and projects were unattended with any solid or salutary fruit, and were generally disconcerted by the intrigues and artifice of Rome, whose legates and creatures were always lying in wait to blow the flame of discord in all those councils that seemed unfavourable to the ambition of its pontifs. In the year 1541, the emperor, regardless of the bishop of Rome, appointed a conference at Worms, Conference on the subject of Religion, between persons of Werms. piety and learning chosen out of each of the contending parties. It was here that Melancthon and Eckius disputed during the space of three days.

<sup>[</sup>s] Besides Burnet's History of the Reformation, see Neal's History of the Puritans, vol. i. chap. i. p. 11.

tisbon.

CENT. days [t]. This conference was, for certain reasons. SECT. I. removed to the diet which was held at Ratisbon the same year, and in which the principal subject Diet of Ra- of deliberation was a memorial, presented by a person unknown, containing a project of peace, with the terms of accommodation that were proper to terminate these religious differences [u]. conference, however, produced no other effect. than a mutual agreement of the contending parties to refer the decision of their pretensions and debates to a general council; or, if the meeting of such a council should be prevented by any unforeseen obstacles, to the next German diet.

All things tend to an open rupture

XIV. This resolution was rendered ineffectual by the period of perplexity and trouble that succeeded the diet of Ratisbon; and by various incidents that widened the breach, and put off to a farther day the deliberations that were designed to heal it. It is true, the Roman pontif ordered his legate to declare in the diet, which was assembled at Spire in the year 1542, that he would, according to the promise he had already made, assemble a general council, and that Trent should be the place of its meeting, if the diet had no objection to that city. FERDINAND, king of the Romans, and the princes who adhered to the papal cause, gave their consent to this proposal; while the protestant members of the diet objected both against a council summoned by the papalauthority alone, and also against the place appointed for its meeting, and demanded a free and lawful council, which should not be biassed by the dictates, nor awed by the proximity of the Roman pontif. This protestation produced no effect; PAUL III. persisted in his purpose, and issued out his circular letters

<sup>[1]</sup> See Jo. AND. ROEDERI Libellus de Colloquio Wormatiensi Norimb. 1744, in 4to.

<sup>[</sup>u] See Jo. ERDMANN BIECKII Triplex Interim, cap. j. p. 1.

letters for the convocation of the council [w], CENT, with the approbation of the emperor; while this SECT. I. prince endeavoured, at the diet of Worms, in the year 1545, to persuade the protestants to consent

to [w] It is proper to observe here, that, having summoned successively a council at Mantua, Vicenza, and Venice, without any effect , this pontif thought it necessary to shew the protestants that he was not averse to every kind of reformation; and therefore appointed four cardinals, and five other persons eminent for their learning, to draw up a plan for the reformation of the church in general, and of the church of Rome in particular, knowing full well, by the spirit which reigned in the conclave, that this project would come to nothing. A plan, however, was drawn up by the persons appointed for that purpose. The reformation proposed in this plan was indeed extremely superficial and partial; yet it contains some particulars, which scarcely could have been expected from the pens of those that composed it. They complained, for instance, of the pride and ignorance of the bishops, and proposed that none should receive orders but learned and pious men; and, that, therefore, care should be taken to have proper masters to instruct the youth. They condemned translations from one benefice to another, grants of reservation, non-residence, and pluralities. They proposed, that some convents should be abolished; that the liberty of the press should be restrained and limited; that the colloquies of Erasmus should be suppressed; that no ecclesiastic should enjoy a benefice out of his own country; that no cardinal should have a bishopric; that the questors of St Anthony, and several other saints, should be abolished; and, which was the best of all their proposals, that the effects and personal estate of ecclesiastics should be given to the poor. They concluded with complaining of the prodigious number of indigent and ragged priests that frequented St PETER's church; and declared, that it was a great scandal to see the whores lodged so magnificently at Rome, and riding through the streets on fine mules, while the cardinals and other ecclesiastics accompanied them in a most courteous and familiar manner. The several articles of this plan of reformation (which LUTHER and STURMIUS of Strasburg turned into ridicule, and which indeed left unredressed the most intolerable grievances of which the protestants complained) were published at Antwerp in or about the year 1539, with the answer of Cochlagus to the objections of STURMIUS. They are likewise prefixed to the History of the Council of Trent, by CRABRE, and were afterwards published at Paris in 1612 + ...

This council was never assembled.

† See Paulin, in Paul III. Sleid. l. xii. Universi Mod. Hist. vol. xxvi. pl.

IIO

### The History of the Reformed Church.

CENT. to the meeting of this council at Trent. But the S R C T. I. protestants were fixed in their resolution, and the efforts of Charles were vain. Upon which the emperor, who had hitherto disapproved of the violent measures which were incessantly suggested by the court of Rome, departed from his usual prudence and moderation, and, listening to the sanguine counsels of PAUL, formed, in conjunction with that subtle pontif, the design of terminating the debates about religion by the force of arms. The landgrave of Hesse, and the elector of Saxony, who were the chief protectors of the protestant cause, were no sooner informed of this, than they took the proper measures to prevent their being surprised and overwhelmed unawares by a surperior force, and, accordingly, raised an army for their defence. While this terrible storm was rising, Luther, whose aversion to all methods of violence and force in matters of religion was well known, and who recommended prayer and patience as the only arms worthy of those who had the cause of genuine Christianity at heart, was removed by Providence from this scene of tumult, and the approaching calamities that threatened his country. He died in peace, on the 18th of February, in the year 1546, at Aysleben, the place of his birth.

#### CHAP. IV.

The History of the Reformation, from the commencement of the war of Smalcald to the famous Pacification, commonly called the Peace of Religion, concluded at Augsburg.

The commencement I. I resolved the destruction of all who should of the war dare to oppose the council of Trent. The meeting of that assembly was to serve as a signal for their taking

were scarcely begun, in the year 1546, when the Sect. I.

protestants perceived undoubted marks of the approaching storm, and of a formidable union between the emperor and the pontif to overwhelm and crush them by a sudden blow. There had been, it is true, a new conference this very year, at the diet of Ratisbon, between some eminent doctors of both parties, with a view to the accommodation of their religious differences; but it appeared sufficiently, both from the nature of this dispute, the manner it was carried on, and its issue and result, that the matters in debate would, sooner or later, be decided in the field of battle. In the mean time, the fathers, assembled in the council of Trent, promulgated their decrees: while the protestant princes in the diet of Ratisbon protested against their authority, and were, in consequencee of this, proscribed by the emperor, who raised an army to reduce them to obedience.

II. The elector of Saxony and the landgrave of The affairs Hesse led their forces into Bavaria against the em- of the properor, and cannonaded his camp at Ingolstad with take an wagreat spirit. It was supposed that this would favourable bring the two armies to a general action; but se-turn. veral circumstances prevented a battle, which was expected by the most of the confederates, and, probably, would have been advantageous to their Among these we may reckon, principally, the perfidy of Maurice, duke of Saxony, Who, s duced by the promises of the emperor on the one hand, and by his own ambition and avarice on the other, invaded the electoral dominions of his uncle John Frederick, while that worthy prince was maintaining against the emperor the sacred cause of religion and liberty. Add to this the divisions that were fomented by the dissimulation of the emperor among the confederate princes; the failure of France in furnishing the subsidy that

had

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CENT. had been promised by its monarch; and other in-SECT. I. cidents of less moment. All these things discouraged so the heads of the protestant party, that their army was soon dispersed, and the elector of Saxony directed his march homewards. But he was pursued by the emperor, who made several forced marches, with a view to destroy his enemy, before he should have time to recover his vigour; in which design he was assisted by the ill-grounded security of the elector, and as there is too much reason to think by the treachery of his officers. The two armies drew up in order of battle near Muhlberg on the Elbe, on the 24th of April, 1547, and after a bloody action, that of the elector, being inferior in numbers, was entirely defeated and himself taken prisoner. landgrave of Hesse, the other chief of the protestants, was persuaded by the entreaties of his sonin-law, Maurice, now declared elector of Saxony [x], to throw himself upon the mercy of the emperor, and to implore his pardon. To this he consented, relying on the promise of Charles for obtaining forgiveness, and being restored to liberty; but, notwithstanding these expectations, he was unjustly detained prisoner by a scandalous violation of the most solemn convention. It is said. that the emperor retracted his promise, and deluded this unhappy prince by the ambiguity of two German words, which resemble each other [y]; but

[x] In the room of John Frederick, whom he had so basely betrayed.

mean, perfidious, and despotic behaviour as that of the emperor to the landgrave in the case now before us. After having received in public the humble submissions of that unhappy prince, made upon his knees, and that in the most respectful and affecting terms, and after having set him at liberty by a solemn treaty, he had him arrested anew, without alleging any reason, nay any pretext, and kept him for several years in a close and severe confinement. When Maurice remon-

strate(

this point of history has not been hitherto so far C E N T. cleared up, as to enable us to judge with certainty concerning the confinement of this prince, and the real causes to which it was owing [2].

III. This revolution seemed every way adapted The famous to complete the ruin of the protestant cause, and temporary to crown the efforts of the Roman pontif with the the Interim most triumphant success. In the diet of Augsburg, which was assembled soon after, with an imperial army at hand to promote union and dispatch, the emperor required of the protestants, that they would leave the decision of these religious contests to the wisdom of the council that was to meet at Trent. The greatest part of the members consented to this proposal; and, among others, Maurice, the new elector of Saxony, who owed both his electorate and his dominions to the emperor, and who was ardently desirous of obtaining the liberty of his father-in-law the landgrave of Hesse. This general submission to the will of the emperor did not, however, produce the fruits that were expected from such a solemn, and almost universal approbation of the council of Trent. Aplague, which manifested itself, or was said to do so, in that city, engaged the greatest part of the assembled fathers to retire to Bologna, and thereby the council was, in effect, dissolved; nor could all the entreaties and remonstrances of the emperor prevail upon the pope to re-assemble it again Vol. IV. without

peror answered, that he had never promised that the landgrave should not be imprisoned anew, but only that he should be exempted from perpetual imprisonment; and, to support this assertion, he produced the treaty, in which his ministers, in order to clude the true meaning of the accommodation, had pertidicusly foisted in ewiger gefangnis, which signifies a perpetual prison, instead of einiger gefangnis, which means any prison. This matter is, however, contested by some historians.

[2] See a German work entitled, BENI GROSCH Vertheidiung der Evangelischen Kirken gegen Gottfr. Arnold. p. 29. SECT. I. without delay. While things were in this situaXVI.

SECT. I. tion, and the prospect of seeing a council assembled
was cast at a distance, the emperor judged it necessary, during this interval, to fall upon some
method of maintaining peace in religious matters,
until the decision, so long expected, should be
finally obtained. It was with this view that he
ordered Julius Pelugius, bishop of Naumburg,
Michael Sidonius, a creature of the pontif, and
John Agricola, a native of Aysleben, to draw up
a Formulary, which might serve as a rule of faith
and worship to both of the contending parties,
until a council should be summoned. As this was
only a temporary appointment, and had not the

IV. This

[a] This project of Charles was formed, partly to vent his resentment against the pope, and partly to answer other purposes of a more political kind. Be that as it may, the Formula ad Interim, or temporary rule of faith and worship here mentioned, contained all the essential doctrines of the church of Rome, though considerably softened and mitigated by the moderate, prudent, and artful terms in which they were expressed; terms quite different from those that were employed, before and after this period, by the council of Trent. There was even an affected ambiguity in many expressions which rendered them susceptible of different senses, applicable to the sentiments of both communions, and therefore disagreeable to both. The Inserim was composed with that fraudulent, specious, and seducing dexterity, that in aftertimes appeared in the deceitful exposition of the catholic faith, by M. Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, and it was almost equally rejected by the Protestants and Roman Catholics. The cup was allowed, by this imperial creed, to the protestants in the administration of the Lord's supper, and priests and clerks were permitted by it to enter into the married state. These grants were, however, accompanied with the two following conditions: "1. That every one should be at liberty to use the cup, or to abstain from it, and to choose a state of marriage, or a state of celibacy, as he should judge most fitting. 2. That these grants should remain in force no longer than the happy period when a general council should terminate all religious differences." This second condition was adapted to pro-

force of a permanent or perpetual institution, the

rule in question was called the *Interim* [a].

IV. This temporary rule of faith and discipline, CENT. though it was extremely favourable to the inter-sect. I. ests and pretensions of the court of Rome, had yet the fate to which schemes of reconciliation are often The trouexposed; it pleased neither of the contending par-which this ties, but was equally offensive to the followers of rise, LUTRER, and to the Roman pontif. It was, however, promulgated with solemnity by the emperor, at the diet of Augsburg; and the elector of Mentz, without even deigning to ask the opinions of the assembled princes and states, rose with an air of authority, and, as if he had been commissioned to represent the whole diet, gave a formal and public approbation to this famous Interim. Thus were many princes of the empire, whose silence though it proceeded from want of courage, was interpreted as the mark of a tacit consent engaged against their will to receive this book as a body of ecclesiastical law. The greatest part of those, who had the resolution to dispute the authority of this Imperial Creed, were obliged to submit to it by the force of arms, and hence arose deplorable scenes of violence and bloodshed. which involved the empire in the greatest calamities. Maurice, elector of Saxony, who, for some time, had held a neutral conduct, and neither declared himself for those who rejected, nor for those who had adopted the rule in question, assembled, in the year 1548, the Saxon nobility and clergy, with MELANCTHON at the head of the latter, and, in several conferences held at Leipsic and other places, took counsel concerning what was to be done

duce the greatest disorder and confusion, in case the future council should think proper to enjoin celibacy on the clergy, and declare, as it did in effect, their marriage unchristian and unlawful.

<sup>[</sup>a] See Jo. Erdm. Bieckii Triplex Interim, published in 8vo mt Leipsic, in the year 1721.—Luc. Osiander Centuria XVI. Histor. Eccles. lib. ii. cap. cap. lxviii. p. 425.—For an account of the authors and editions of the book called Interim, see Die Danische Biblioth. part V. p. 1. & part VI. p. 185.

CENT done in this critical affair. The deliberations, on SECT. I. this occasion, were long and tedious, and their result was ambiguous; for Melancthon, whose opinion was respected as a law by the reformed doctors, fearing the emperor on the one hand, and attentive to the sentiments of his sovereign on the other, pronounced a sort of a reconciling sentence, which, he hoped, would be offensive to no party. He gave it as his opinion, that the whole of the book called Interim could not, by any means, be adopted by the friends of the Reformation: but he declared, at the same time, that he saw no reason, why this book might not be approved, adopted, and received, as an authoritative rule, in things that did not relate to the essential points of religion, in things that might be considered as accessory or indifferent [b]. This decision, instead of pacifying matters, produced, on the contrary, new divisions, and formed a schism among the followers of Luther, of which farther mention shall be made hereafter, in the History of the Church established by that reformer. I shall only observe, that this schism placed the cause of the Reformation in the most perilous and critical circumstances, and might have contributed either to ruin it entirely, or to retard considerably its progress, had the pope and the emperor been dexterous enough to make the proper use of these divisions, and to seize the favourable occasion that was presented to them, of turning the force The project of the protestants against themselves.

of a council at Trent renewed.

V. Amidst these contests Paul III. departed this life in the year 1549, and was succeeded, the year following, by Julius III. who, yielding to

[b] By things indifferent, Melancthon understood particularly the rites and ceremonies of the popish worship, which, superstitious as they were, that reformer, yielding to the softness and flexibility of his natural temper, treated with a singular and .excessive indulgence upon this occasion.

the repeated and importunate solicitations of the CENT. emperor, consented to the assembling a council XVI. at Trent. Accordingly, in the diet of Augsburg, which was again held under the canon of an Inperial army, Charles laid this matter before the states and princes of the empire. The greatest part of the princes gave their consent to the convocation of this council, to which also MAURICE, elector of Saxony, submitted upon certain conditions [c]. The emperor then concluded the diet in the year 1551, desiring the assembled princes and states to prepare all things for the approaching council, and premising that he would use his most zealous endeavours towards the promoting moderation and harmony, impartiality and charity, in the deliberations and transactions of that assembly. Upon the breaking up of the diet, the protestants took the steps they judged most prudent to prepare themselves for what was to happen. The Saxons employed the pen of Me-LANCTHON, and the Wurtemberghers that of BREDTIUS, to draw up confessions of their faith, that were to be laid before the new council. Besides the ambassadors of the duke of Wurtemberg, several doctors of that city repaired to Trent. The Saxon divines, with Melancthon at their head, set

[c] MAURICE (who was desirous of regaining the esseem of the protestants of Saxony, which he had lost by his perfidious behaviour to the late elector JOHN FREDERICK, his benefactor and friend) gave his consent to the re-establishing the council of Trent, upon the following conditions: 1s1, That the points of doctrine, which had been already decided there, should be re-examined, and discussed anew: 2dly, That this emmination should be made in presence of the protestant di-3dly, That the Saxon protestants vines, or their deputies. should have a liberty of cotting, as well as of deliberating, in the equncil: and 41bly, That the pope should not pretend to preside in that assembly, either in person or by his legates. This declaration of MAURICE was read in the diet, and his deputies insisted upon its being entered into the registers, which the archbishop of Mentz, however, obstinately refused.

CENT. set out also for that place, but proceeded in their SECT. I. journey no further than Nuremberg. They had received secret orders to stop there; for Mau-RICE had no intention of submitting to the emperor's views; on the contrary, he hoped to reduce. that prince to a compliance with his own projects. He therefore yielded in appearance, that he

Maurice disconcerts of the eniperor.

might carry his point, and thus command in reality. VI. The real views of Charles V. amidst the the schemes divisions and troubles of Germany (which he fomented by negociations that carried the outward aspect of a reconciling spirit), will appear evidently to such as consider attentively the nature of the times, and compare the transactions of this prince, the one with the other. Relying on the extent of his power, and the success that frequently accompanied his enterprizes, with a degree of confidence that was highly imprudent, CHARLES proposed to turn these religious commotions and dissensions to the confirmation and increase of his dominions in Germany, and by sowing the seeds of discord among the princes of the empire, to weaken their power, and thereby the more easily to encroach upon their rights and privileges. On the other hand, ardently desirous of reducing within narrower limits the jurisdiction and dominion of the Roman pontifs, that they might not set bounds to his ambition, nor prevent the execution of his aspiring views, he flattered himself that this would be the natural effect of the approaching council. He was confirmed in this pleasing hope, by reflecting on what had happened in the councils of Constance and of Basil, in which the lust of papal ambition had been opposed with spirit, and restrained within certain limits. He also persuaded himself, that, by the dexterity of his agents, and the number of the Spanish and German bishops that were devoted to his interests, he should be able to influence and direct the deliberations of the

the approaching council in such a manner, as to CENT. make its decisions answer his expectations, and SXVI. contribute effectually to the accomplishment of his views. Such were the specious dreams of ambition that filled the imagination of this restless prince; but his views and projects were discongerted by that same MAURICE of Saxony, who had been one of the principal instruments of that violence and oppression which he had exercised against the protestant princes, and of the injury he had done to the protestant cause.

VII. The most considerable princes, not only A war kine of Germany, but even of all Europe, had, for a dled belong time, addressed to the emperor their united tween the entreaties for the deliverance of Philip, landgrave and Mau-of Hesse, and John Frederick, elector of Saxony, ony. from their confinement; and MAURICE had solicited, with peculiar warmth and assiduity, the liberty of the former, who was his father-in-law. But all these solicitations produced no effect. MAURICE, perceiving at length that he was duped by the emperor, and also convinced that this ambitious monarch was forming insidious designs upthe liberties of Germany, and the jurisdiction of princes, entered, with the utmost secrecy and expedition, into an alliance with the king of France and several of the German princes, for the Paintenance of the rights and liberties of the em-Pire. Encouraged by this respectable confedera-Cy, the active Saxon marched a powerful army a-Sainst the emperor in the year 1552; and that with such astonishing valour and rapidity, that he Surprised CHARLES at Inspruk, where he lay with a handful of troops in the utmost security, and without the least apprehension of danger. sudden and unforeseen event alarmed and dejected the emperor to such a degree, that he was willing to make peace on almost any conditions; and consequently, in a little time after this, he not I 4 enly

C N Tonly concluded at Passau the famous treaty of SECT. I.

Pacification with the protestants [d], but also ' promised to assemble, in the space of six months, a diet, in which all the tumults and dissensions that had been occasioned by a variety of sentiments in religious matters should be entirely removed. Thus did the same prince, who stands foremost in the list of those that oppressed the protestants, and reduced their affairs to the greatest extremities, restore their expiring hopes, support and render triumphant their desperate cause, and procure them a bulwark of peace and liberty, which still remains. MAURICE, however, did not live to see this happy issue of his glorious expedition; for he lost his life the year following, by a wound received at the battle of Siverbausen, while he was fighting against Albert of Brandenburg [e].

VIII. The

[d] As this treaty is considered by the German protestants as the basis of their religious liberty, it will not be amiss to insert here some of its principal articles. By the three first articles it was stipulated, that Maurice and the confederates should lay down their arms, and should lend their troops to Ferdinand to defend him against the Turks, and that the landgrave of Hesse should be set at liberty. By the fourth it was agreed that the rule of faith called Interim, should be considered as null and void; that the contending parties should enjoy the free and undisturbed exercise of their religion, until a diet should be assembled to determine amicably the present disputes (which diet was to meet in the space of six months); and that this religious liberty should continue always, in case that it should be found impossible to come to an uniformity in doctrine and worship. It was also resolved, that all those who had suffered banishment, or any other calamity, on account of their having been concerned in the league or war of Smalcald, should be re-instated in their privileges, their possessions, and employments; that the Imperial chamber at Spire should be open to the protestants as well as to the catholics; and that there should be always a certain number of the Lutheran persuasion in that high court.

[e] Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, after the pacification of Passau, to which he refused to subscribe, continued the war against the Roman catholics; and afterwards committed such ravages in the empire, that a confederacy was formed

against him, at the head of which Maurice was placed.

VIII. The troubles of Germany, with several CENT. other incidents, rendered it impossible to assem-XVI. ble the Diet, which the emperor had promised at SECT. I. the pacification of Passau, so soon as the period The Diet of mentioned in the articles of that treaty. This Augsburg, famous Diet met, however, at Augsburg, in the peace of year 1555, was opened by Ferdinand in the religion. name of the emperor and terminated those deplorable scenes of bloodshed, desolation, and discord, that had so long afflicted both church and state, by that religious peace, as it is commonly called, which secured to the protestants the free exercise of their religion, and established this inestimable liberty upon the firmest foundations. For, after various debates, the following memorable acts were passed on the 25th of September; that the protestants who followed the confession of Augsburg, should be for the future considered as entirely exempt from the jurisdiction of the Roman pontif, and from the authority and superintendence of the bishops; that they were left at perfect liberty to enact laws for themselves, relating to their religious sentiments, discipline, and worship; that all the inhabitants of the German empire should be allowed to judge for themselves in religious matters, and to join themselves to that church whose doctrine and worship they thought the purest and the most consonant to the spirit of true Christianity; and that all those who should injure or persecute any person under religious pretexts, and on account of their opinions, should be declared, and proceeded against as public enemies of the empire, invaders of its liberty, and disturbers of its peace [f]. The difficulties that were to be surmounted before this equitable decision could be procured, the tedious deliberations,

<sup>[</sup>f] See Jo. Schilteri Liver de Pace Religiosa, published in 4'o. in the year 1700.—Christ. Lehmanni Acta publica et urizinalia de Pace Religiosa. Francf. 1707.

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CENT. the warm debates, the violent animosities and bloody wars, that were necessary to engage the greatest part of the German states to consent to conditions so agreeable to the dictates of right reason, as well as to the sacred injunctions of the gospel, shew us, in a shocking and glaring point of light, the ignorance and superstition of these miserable times, and stand upon record as one of the most evident proofs of the necessity of the Reformation.

mation gains ground in Ing-

The Refor- 1X. While these things were transacting in Germany, the friends of genuine Christianity in England deplored the gloomy reign of superstition, and the almost total extinction of true religion; and, seeing before their eyes the cause of popery maintained by the terrors of bloody persecution, and daily victims brought to the stake, to expiate the pretended crime of preferring the dictates of the Gospel to the despotic laws of Rome, they esteemed the Germans happy, in having thrown off the yoke of an imperious and superstitious church. HENRY VIII. whose personal vices, as well as his arbitrary and capricious conduct, had greatly retarded the progress of the Reformation, was now no more. He departed this life in the year 1547, and was succeeded by his only son, EDWARD VI. This amiable prince, whose early youth was crowned with that wisdom, sagacity, and virtue, that would have done honour to advanced years, gave new spirit and vigour to the protestant cause, and was its brightest ornament, as well as its most effectual support. He encouraged learned and pious men of foreign countries to settle in England, and addressed a particular invitation to MARTIN BUCER and PAUL FAGIUS, whose moderation added a lustre to their other virtues, that, by the ministry and labours of these eminent men, in concert with those of the friends of the Reformation in England, he might purge his dominions

nions from the sordid fictions of popery, and es-CENT. tablish the pure doctrines of Christianity in their SECT. I. place. For this purpose he issued out the wisest orders for the restoration of true religion; but his reign was too short to accomplish fully such a glorious purpose. In the year 1553, he was taken from his loving and afflicted subjects, whose sorrow was inexpressible, and suited to their loss. His sister MARY (the daughter of CATHARINE of Arragon, from whom HENRY had been separated by the famous divorce), a furious bigot to the church of Rome, and a princess whose natural character, like the spirit of her religion, was despotic and cruel, succeeded him on the British throne, and imposed anew the arbitrary laws and the tyrannical yoke of Rome upon the people of England. Nor were the methods she employed, in the cause of superstition, better than the cause itself, or tempered by any sentiments of equity or compassion. Barbarous tortures, and death in the most shocking forms, awaited those who opposed her will, or made the least stand against the restoration of popery. And among many other victims, the learned and pious CRANMER, archbishop of Canterbury, who had been one of the most illustrious instruments of the Reformation in England, fell a sacrifice to her fury. This odious scene of persecution was happily concluded, in the year 1558, by the death of the queen, who left no issue; and, as soon as her successor the lady ELIZABETH ascended the throne, all things assumed a new and a pleasing aspect. This illustrious princess, whose sentiments, councils, and projects breathed a spirit superior to the natural softness and delicacy of her sex, exerted this vigorous and manly spirit in the defence of oppressed conscience and expiring liberty, broke anew the despotic yoke of papal authority and superstition, and, delivering her people from the bondage of Rome.

CENT. Rome, established that form of religious doctrine 8 x c T. I. and ecclesiastical government which still subsists in England. This religious establishment differs, in some respects, from the plan that had been formed by those whom EDWARD VI. had employed for promoting the cause of the Reformation, and approaches nearer to the rites and discipline of former times; though it is widely different, and in the most important points entirely opposite to the principles of the Roman hierarchy. A. The seeds of the Reformation were very

In Scotland

early sown in Scotland, by several noblemen of that nation, who had resided in Germany during the religious disputes that divided the empire. But the power of the Roman pontif, supported and seconded by inhuman laws and barbarous executions, choked, for many years, these tender seeds, and prevented their taking root. The first and most eminent opposer of the papal jurisdiction was John Knox [g], a disciple of Calvin, whose eloquence

IF [g] It will not be improper to insert here the character of this famous Scottish Reformer, as it is drawn by the elegant, spirited, accurate, and impartial pen of D1 ROBERTSON, in his History of Scotland, book VI. " Zeal, intrepidity, dis-"interestedness (says that incomparable writer) were virtues "which he possessed in an eminent degree. He was ac-" quainted, too, with the learning cultivated in that age; and "excelled in that species of eloquence which is calculated to "rouse and to inflame. His maxims, however, were often "too severe, and the impetuosity of his temper excessive. "Rigid and uncomplying himself, he shewed no indulgence to the infirmities of others. Regardless of the distinctions of "rank and character, he uttered his admonitions with an acri-"mony and vehemence more apt to irritate than to re-"claim. This often betrayed him into indecent and undu-"tiful expression with respect to the queen's person and con"duct. Those very qualities, however, which now ren-"dered his character less amiable, fitted him to be the in-" strument of providence for advancing the Reformation a-"mong a fierce people, and enabled him to face dangers, " and to surmount opposition, from which a person of a more " gentle spirit would have been apt to shrink back. " unwearjed

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eloquence was persuasive, and whose fortitude CENT. was invincible [b]. This resolute reformer set S R C T. I. out from Geneva for Scotland in the year 1559. and in a very short space of time, inspired the people, by his private exhortations and his public discourses, with such a violent aversion to the superstitions of Rome, that the greatest part of the Scotch nation abandoned them entirely, and aimed at nothing less than the total extirpation of popery [i]. From this period to the present times, the form of doctrine, worship and discipline, that had been established at Geneva by the ministry of Calvin, has been maintained in Scotland withinvincible obstinacy and zeal, and every attempt to introduce into that kingdom the rites and government of the church of England has proved impotent and unsuccessful [k].

XI. The

"unwearied application to study and to business, as well as by
"the frequency and fervour of his public discourses, he had worn
"out a constitution naturally strong. During a lingering ill"ness, he discovered the utmost fortitude, and met the approaches of death with a magnanimity inseparable from his
"character. He was constantly employed in acts of devotion,
and comforted himself with those prospects of immortality,
which not only preserve good men from desponding, but fill
"them with exultation in their last moments."

pronounced his eulogium in a few words, the more honourable for Knox, as they came from one whom he had often censured with peculiar severity: "There lies He who never feared the face of man."

[i] See NEAL's History of the Puritans, vol. i. p. 165, 232, 234, 569.—CALDERWOOD's History of Scotland's Reformation, published in folio at London in the year 1680.—GEORG. BUCHANANI Rerum Scoticar, Hist. lib. xvi. p. 313. edit. Rudimann. folio.—MELVIL's Memoirs, vol. i. p. 73.

The indignation of the people, which had been excited by the vices of the clergy, was soon transferred to their persons, and settled at last, by a transition not unusual, upon the offices they enjoyed; and thus the effects of the Reformation extended not only to the doctrine, but also to the government of the popish church. But in Germany, England, and the

CENT. XI. The cause of the Reformation underwent. XVI. Sect. I. in Ireland, the same vicissitudes and revolutions that

In Ireland. northern kingdoms, its operations were checked by the power and policy of their princes, and episcopal hierarchy (which appears to be the most conformable to the practice of the church, since Christianity became the established religion of the Roman empire), was still continued in these countries, under certain limitations. The ecclesiastical government was copied after the civil; and the dioceses and jurisdiction of patriarchs, arch-bishops, and bishops, corresponded with the division and constitution of the empire. In Switzerland and the Low Countries, the nature and spirit of a republican policy gave fuller scope to the reformers; and thus all pre-eminence of order in the church was destroyed, and that form of ecclesiastical government established, which has been since called Presbyterian. The situation of the primitive church (oppressed by continual persecutions, and obliged by their sufferings to be contented with a form of government extremely simple, and with a parity of rank for want of ambition to propose, or power to support, a subordination) suggested, without doubt, the idea of this latter system; though it would be unfair to allege this consideration as a victorious argument in favour of Presbyterianism; because a change of circumstances will sometimes justify a change in the methods and plans of government. Be that as it may, the church of Geneva, which received the decisions of Calvin with an amazing docility, restored this Presbyterian or republican form of ecclesiastical policy; Knox studied, admired, and recommended it to his countrymen, and he was seconded by many of the Scotch nobles, of whom some hated the persons, while others coveted the wealth of the dignified clergy. But, in introducing this system, the Scottish Reformer did not deem it expedient, to depart altogether from the ancient form; but, instead of bishops, proposed the establishment of ten superintendents, to inspect the life and doctrine of the other clergy, to preside in the inferior judicatories of the church, without pretending to claim either a seat in parliament, or the revenues and dignity of the former bishops. This proposal was drawn up, and presented to a convention of estates which was held in the year 1561; and what it contained, in relation to ecclesiastical jurisdiction and discipline, would have easily obtained the sanction of that assembly, had not a design to recover the patrimony of the church, in order to apply it to the advancement of religion and learning, been insinuated in it. After this, at certain periods, the name of bishops was revived, but without the prerogatives, jurisdiction, or revenues, that were formerly appropriated to that order. They were made subject to the general assemblies of the

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that had attended it in England. When HENRYC ENT. XVI.
VIII. after the abolition of the papal authority, SECT. I. was declared supreme head upon earth, of the church of England, George Brown, a native of England, and a monk of the Augustine order, whom that monarch had created, in the year 1535, archbishop of Dublin, began to act with the utmost vigour in consequence of this change in the hierarchy. He purged the churches of his diocese from superstition in all its various forms, pulled down images, destroyed relics, abolished absurd and idolatrous rites, and, by the influence, as well as authority, he had in Ireland, caused the king's supremacy to be acknowledged in that nation [1]. Henry shewed soon after, that this supremacy was not a vain title; for he banished the monks out of that kingdom, confiscated their revenues, and destroyed their convents. In the reign

their name, as well as their order, was abolished at the Revolution in 1688, and presbyterianism established in Scotland by the laws of the state. See ROBERTSON'S History of Scotland, passim.

[1] The learned and pious primate Usher, in his memoirs of the ecclesiastical affairs of Ireland, speaks of Bishop Brown in the following manner: "George Brown was a man of a chearful countenance, in his acts and deeds plain, downright; to the poor, merciful and compassionate, pitying the state and condition of the souls of the people, and auvising them, when he was provincial of the Augustine order in England, to make their application solely to Christ; which advice coming to the ears of Henry VIII. he became a favourite, and was made archbishop of Dublin. Within five years after he enjoyed that see, he caused all superstitious relics and images to be removed out of the two cathedrals in Dublin, and out of all the churches in his diocese; and caused the Ten Commandmente, the Lord's Prayer, and the Creed, to be placed in gilded frames about the altars. He was the first that turned from the Romish religion of the clergy here in Ireland, to embrace the Reformation of the church of England." See a very curious pamphlet in the fifth volume of the Harleian Miscellany, p. 558. intiled, Historical Collections of the Church of Ireland, &c.

SECT. I. SECT. I. made in the removal of popish superstitions, by the zealous labours of bishop Brown, and the auspicious encouragement he granted to all who exerted themselves in the cause of the reformation. But the death of this excellent prince, and the accession of his sister to the throne, changed the face of things in *Ireland*, as it had done in *England* [m]. Mary pursued with fire and sword and

If [m] Here Dr Mosheim has fallen into a mistake, by not distinguishing between the designs of the queen, which were indeed cruel, and their execution, which was happily and providentially prevented. This appears from a very singular and comical adventure, of which the account, as it has been copied from the papers of Richard, earl of Cork, and is to be found among the manuscripts of Sir James Ware, is as follows;

"Queen Mary, having dealt severely with the protestants in " England, about the latter end of her reign signed a commission " for to take the same course with them in Ireland; and to ex-46 ecute the same with greater force, she nominates Dr Cole, one " of the commissioners. This doctor coming with the commis-" sion to Chester on his journey, the mayor of that city, hearing "that her majesty was sending a messenger into Ireland, and he being a churchman, waited on the doctor, who in discourse " with the mayor, taketh out of a cloke-bag a leather box, say-"ing unto him, "Here is a commission that shall lash the he-" retics of Ireland," (calling the protestants by that title.) The "good woman of the house, being well affected to the protes-" tant religion, and also having a brother named John Edmonds " of the same, then a citizen in Dublin, was much troubled at "the doctor's words; but watching her convenient time, while "the mayor took his leave, and the doctor complimented him "down the stairs, she opens the box, takes the commission out " and places in lieu thereof, a sheet of paper, with a pack of " cards wrapt up therein, the knave of clubs being faced upper-4 most. The doctor coming up to his chamber, suspecting no-"thing of what had been done, put up the box as formerly. "The next day going to the water side, wind and weather ser-"ving him, he sails towards Ireland, and landed on the 7th of " October, 1558. at Dublin. Then coming to the castle, the " lord Fitz-Walters, being lord-deputy, sent for him to come " before him and the privy-council: who, coming in, after "he had made a speech relating upon what account he came "over, he presents the box unto the Lord-deputy, who " causing it to be opened, that the secretary might read the

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promoters of a pure and rational religion, and de-str. prived Brown and other protestant bishops of their dignities in the church. But the reign of ELIZABETH gave a new and a deadly blow to popery, which was again recovering its force, and arming itself anew with the authority of the throne; and the Irish were obliged again to submit to the form of worship and discipline established in England [n].

XII. The Reformation had not been long esta-The Reforblished in Britain, when the Belgic provinces, mation united by a respectable confederacy, which still takes place united by a respectable confederacy, which still takes place to the Roman pontif, Philip II. king of Spain, apprehending the danger to which the religion of Rome was exposed from that spirit of liberty and independence which reigned in the inhabitants of the Low-Countries, took the most violent measures to dispel it. For this purpose he augmented the number of the bishops, enacted the most severe

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knave of clubs uppermost; which not only startled the lorddeputy and council, but the doctor who assured them he had
a commission, but knew not how it was gone; then the lorddeputy made answer, "Let us have another commission, and
we will shuffle the eards in the mean while." The doctor
being troubled in his mind, went away, and returned into
England; and coming to the court, obtained another commission; but staying for a wind on the water side, news came
to him that the queen was dead; and thus God preserved the
protestants of Ireland."

Oueen Elizabeth was so delighted with this story, which was related to her by Lord Fitz Walter on his return to England, that she sent for Elizabeth Edmonds, whose husband's name Mattershad, and gave her a pension of forty pounds during her life. See Cox, Hibernia Anglicana, or History of Ireland,

Vol. ii. p. 303.—Harleian Miscellany, vol. v. p. 568.

[n] See the life of Dr George Brown, Archbishop of Dubin, published at London in 4to, in the year 1631, and which has been reprinted in the fifth volume of the Harleran Miscel-Lay, No. LXXIX. CENT and barbarous laws against all innovators in matters of religion, and erected that unjust and SECT. I. inhuman tribunal of the inquisition, which would intimidate and tame, as he thought, the manly spirit of an oppressed and persecuted people. But his measures, in this respect, were as unsuccessful as they were absurd; his furious and intemperate zeal for the superstitions of Rome accelerated their destruction, and the papal authority, which had only been in a critical state, was reduced to a desperate one, by the very steps that were designed to support it. The nobility formed themselves into an association, in the year 1566, with a view to procure the repeal of these tyrannical and barbarous edicts; but, their solicitations and requests being treated with contempt, they resolved to obtain by force, what they hoped to have gained from clemency and justice. They addressed themselves to a free and an abused people, spurned the authority of a cruel yoke, and with an impetuosity and vehemence that were perhaps excessive, trampled upon whatever was held sacred or

> [0] Dr Mosheim seems here to distinguish too little between the spirit of the nobility and that of the multitude. Nothing was more temperate and decent than the conduct of the former; and nothing could be more tumultuous and irregular than the behaviour of the latter. While the multitude destroyed churches, pulled down monasteries, broke the images used in public worship, abused the officers of the inquisition, and committed a thousand enormities, the effects of furious resentment and brutish rage; the nobility and more opulent citizens kept within the bounds of moderation and prudence. Tho? justly exasperated against a despotic and cruel government, they dreaded the consequences of popular tumults as the greatest of missortunes. Nay, many of them united their councils and forces with those of the governess (the duchess of Parma,) to restrain the ambition and turbulent spirit of the people. The Prince of Orange and Count Egmont (whose memories will live for ever in the grateful remembrance of the Dutch nation, and be dear to all the lovers of heroic patriotism

> respectable by the church of Rome [0]. To quell

these

these tumults, a powerful army was sent from Spain, c E N T, under the command of the duke of ALVA, whose S R G T. L. horrid barbarity and sanguinary proceedings kindled that long and bloody war from which the powerful republic of the United Provinces derive its origin, consistence, and grandeur. It was the heroic conduct of WILLIAM of Nassau, prince of Orange, seconded by the succours of England and France, that delivered this state from the Spanish yoke. And no sooner was this deliverance obtained, than the reformed religion, as it was professed in Switzerland, was established in the United Provinces [p]; and, at the same time, an universal toleration granted to those whose religious sentiments were of a different nature, whether they retained the faith of Rome, or embraced the Reformation in another form [q], provided still that they made no attempts against the authority of the go-**Vernment**, or the tranquillity of the public [r].

All. The and sacred liberty throughout the world) signalized their moderation upon this occasion, and were the chief instruments of the repose that ensued. Their opposition to the government proceeded from the dictates of humanity and justice, and not from a spirit of licentiousness and rebellion; and such was their influence and authority among the people, that, had the imperious court of Spain condescended to make any reasonable concessions, the public tranquillity might have been again restored, and the affections of the people entirely regained. See Le Clerc, Histoire des Prov. Un. livr. i. p. 18.

[p] In the year 1573.

that was granted to the Roman Catholics, and that which the Anabaptists, Lutherans and other protestant sects, enjoyed. They were all indiscriminately excluded from the civil employments of the state; but though they were equally allowed the exercise of their religion, the latter were permitted to enjoy their religious worship in a more open and public manner than the former, from whom the churches were taken, and whose religious assemblies were confined to private conventicles, which had no external resemblance of the edifices usually set apart for divine worship.

[r] See a farther account of this matter in Gerhard mandt's Hi tory of the Reformation in the Netherlands, of K2 which

CENT.

KVI.

SECT. I.

The progress of the Reformation in Spain and Italy.

XIII. The Reformation made a considerable progress in Spain and Italy soon after the rupture between Lurher and the Roman pontif. In all the provinces of Italy, but more especially in the territories of Venice, Tuscany, and Naples, the religion of Rome lost ground, and great numbers of persons, of all ranks and orders, expressed an aversion to the papal yoke. This gave rise to violent and dangerous commotions in the kingdom of Naples in the year 1546, of which the principal authors were BERNARD OCHINO and PETER MARTYR, who, in their public discourses from the pulpit, exhausted all the force of their irresistible eloquence in exposing the enormity of the reigning superstition. These tumults were appeared with much difficulty by the united efforts of Charles V. and his viceroy Don Pedro DI Toledo [s]. In several places the popes put a stop to the progress of the Reformation, by letting loose, upon the pretended heretics, their bloody inquisitors, who spread the marks of their usual barbarity through the greatest part of Italy. These formidable ministers of superstition put so many to death, and perpetrated, on the friends of religious liberty, such horrid acts of cruelty and oppression, that most of the reformists consulted their safety by a voluntary exile, while others returned to the religion of Rome, at least in external appearance. But the terrors of the inquisition, which frightened back into the profession of popery several protestants in other parts of *Italy*, could not penetrate into the kingdom of *Naples*, nor could either the authority or entreaties of the

which there was a French abridgement published at Amsterdam, in three volumes 12mo, in the year 1730. The original work was published in Dutch, in four volumes 4to.

[s] See Giannone, Histoire Civile du Royaume de Naples, tom. iv. p. 108.—Vita Galeacii in Museo Helvetico, tom. ii. p. 524

Roman pontifs engage the Neapolitans to admit CENT, within their territories either a court of inquisi-SCET. I. tion, or even visiting inquisitors [t].

The eyes of several persons in Spain, were opened upon the truth, not only by the spirit of inquiry, which the controversies between LUTHER and

K 3 [1] It was an attempt to introduce a Roman Inquisitor into the city of Naples, that properly speaking, produced the turnult and sedition which Dr Mosheim attributes in this section to the pulpit discourses of Ochino and Martyr; for these famous preachers, and particularly the former, taught the doctrines of the reformation with great art, prudence, and caution, and converted many secretly, without giving public offence. The emperor himself, who heard him at Naples, declared that "he preached with such spirit and devotion as was sufficient to make the very stones weep." After Ochino's departure from Naples, the disciples he had formed gave private instructions to others, among whom were some eminent ecclesiastics and persons of distinction, who began to form congregations and conventicles. This awaked the jealousy of the viceroy Toledo, who published a severe edict against heretical books, ordered some productions of Melancthon and Erasmus to be publicly burnt, looked with a suspicious eye on all kinds of literature, suppressed several academies, which had been erected about this time by the nobility for the advancement of learning; and, having received orders from the emperor to introduce the inquisition, desired Pope Paul III. to send from Rome to Naples a deputy of that formidable tribunal. this that excited the people to take up arms in order to defend themselves against this branch of spiritual tyranny, which the Neapolitans never were patient enough to suffer, and which, on many occasions, they had opposed with vigour and success. Hostilities ensued, which were followed by an accommodation of matters and a general pardon; while the emperor and viceroy, by this resolute opposition, were deterred from their design of introducing this despotic tribunal into the kingdom of Naples. Several other attempts were afterwards made, during the reign of Philip II. III. IV. and Charles II. to establish the inquisition in Naples; but, by the jealousy and vigilance of the people, they all proved ineffectual. At length the emperor Charles VI. in the beginning of this present century, published an edict, expressly prohibiting all causes, relating to the holy faith to be tried by any persons except the archbishops and bishops as ordinaries. See Giannone Histoire de Naples, livr. xxxii. sect. 2. and 3.—Modern Univ. History, vol. xxviii. p. 273, &c. edit. ectavo.

NT. Rome had excited in Europe, but even by those XVI.

Very divines, which Charles V. had brought with him into Germany, to combat the pretended heresy of the reformers. For these Spanish doctors imbibed this heresy instead of refuting it, and propagated it more or less, on their return home, as appears evidently from several circumstances [u]. But the inquisition, which could not gain any footing in the kingdom of Naples, reigned triumphant in Spain; and by racks, gibbets, stakes, and other such formidable instruments of its method of persuading, soon terrified the people back into popery, and suppressed the vehement desire they had of changing a superstitious worship for a rational religion [w].

What judgment we writers, whatever their secret intentions may be, are to form concerning the Reformany be charged upon some of the most eminent mation, and the means by which it ligion. For every impartial and attentive observated.

XIV. I shall not pretend to dispute with those writers, whatever their secret intentions may be, are to form who observe, that many unjustifiable proceedings the Reformation will are to form the mation, and the means by which it ligion. For every impartial and attentive observated.

This appears from the unhappy end of all the ecclesiastics that had attended Charles V. and followed him into his retirement. No sooner was the breath of that monarch out, than they were put into the inquisition, and were afterwards committed to the flames, or sent to death in other forms equally terrible. Such was the fate of Augustin Casal, the emperor's preacher; of Constantine Pontius, his confessor; of the learned Egidius, whom he had nominated to the bishopric of Tortosa; of Bartholomew de Caranza, a Dominican, who had been confessor to king Philip and queen Mary, with about twenty more of less note. All this gave reason to presume that Charles. V. died a protestant. Certain it is, that he knew well the corruptions and frauds of the claich of Rome, and the grounds and reasons of the protestant faith; though business, ambition, interest and the prejudices of education, may have blinded him for a while, until leisure retirement, the absence of worldly temptations and the approach of death, removed the veil, and led him to wise and serious reflections. . See Burnet's History of the Reformation, and the book cited in the following note.

[w] See Geddes, his Spanish Martyrology, in his Miscella-

necus tracts, tom. i. p. 445.

ingenuously acknowledge, that wisdom and pru-CENT. dence did not always attend the transactions of SECT. I. those that were concerned in this glorious cause; that many things were done with violence, temerity, and precipitation; and, what is still worse, that several of the principal agents in this great revolution were actuated more by the impulse of passions, and views of interest, than by a zeal for the advancement of true religion. But, on the other hand, the wise and candid observer of things will own, as a most evident and incontestable truth, that many things which, when stripped of the circumstances and motives that attended them, appear to us at this time as real crimes, will be deprived of their enormity, and even acquire the aspect of noble deeds, if they be considered in One point of view with the times and places in which they were transacted, and with the frauds and crimes of the Roman pontifs and their creatures, by which they were occasioned. But after all, in defending the cause of the Reformation, e are under no obligation to defend, in all things, The moral characters of its promoters and instruments. These two objects are entirely distinct. he most just and excellent cause may be pronoted with low views, and from sinister motives, without losing its nature, or ceasing to be just and excellent. The true state of the question here, is, Whether the opposition made, by LUTHER and the ther reformers, to the Roman pontif, was founded on just and solid reasons? and this question is enrely independent of the virtues or vices of par-Ticular persons [x]. Let many of these persons De supposed as odious, nay, still more detestable, Than they are pleased to represent them, provided The cause in which they were embarked be allowed to have been just and good.

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[x] The translator has added here some paragraphs, to

mender more palpable the important observation of the learned

author.

# APPENDIX I.

Concerning the SPIRIT and CONDUCT of the first Reformers, and the charge of ENTHUSIASM (i. e. fanaticism), that has been brought against them by, a celebrated Author.

THE candour and impartiality, with which Dr Mosheim represents the transactions of those who were agents and instruments in bringing about the Reformation, are highly laudable. He acknowledges, that imprudence, passion, and even a low self-interest, mingled sometimes their rash proceedings and ignoble motives in this excellent cause; and, in the very nature of things, it could not be otherwise. It is one of the most inevitable consequences of the subordination and connexions of civil society, that many proper instruments and agents are set to work in all great and important revolutions, whether of a religious or political nature. When great men appear in these revolutions, they draw after them their dependants; and the unhappy effects of a party-spirit are unavoidably displayed in the best cause. The subjects follow their prince; the multitude adopt the system of their leaders, without entering into its true spirit, or being judiciously attentive to the proper methods of promoting it; and thus irregular proceedings are employed in the maintenance of the truth. Thus it happened in the important revolution that delivered a great part of Eurepe from the ignominious yoke of the Romanpontif. The sovereigns, the ecclesiastics, the men of weight, piety,

piety, learning, who arose to assert the rights of human nature, the cause of genuine Christianity, and the exercise of religious liberty, came forth into the field of controversy with a multitude of dependants, admirers and friends, whose motives and conduct cannot be entirely justified. Besides, when the eyes of whole nations were opened upon the iniquitous absurdities of popery, and upon the tyranny and insolence of the Roman pontifs, it was scarcely possible to set bounds to the indignation of an incensed and tumultuous multitude, who are naturally prone to extremes, generally pass from blind submission to lawless ferocity, and too rarely distinguish between the use and abuse of their undoubted rights. In a word, many things, which appear to us extremely irregular in the conduct and measures of some of the instruments of our happy reformation, will be entitled to a certain degree of indulgence, if the spirit of the times, the situation of the contending parties, the barbarous provocations of popery, and the infirmities of human nature, be duly and attentively considered.

The question here is, what was the spirit which animated the first and principal reformers, who arose in times of darkness and despair to deliver oppressed kingdoms from the dominion of Rome, and upon what principles a Luther, a Zuingle, a Calvin, a Melancthon, a Bucer, &c. embarked in the arduous cause of the Reformation? This question, is not at all necessary to the defence of the Reformation, which rests upon the strong foundations of scripture and reason, and whose excellence is absolutely independant on the virtues of those who took the lead in promoting it. Bad men may be, and often are, embarked in the best causes; as such causes afford the most specious mask to cover mercenary views, or to disguise ambitious purposes. But until the

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more than Jesuitical and disingenuous Philips resumed the trumpet of calumny [a] even the voice of popery had ceased to attack the moral characters of the leading reformers.

These eminent men were indeed attacked from another quarter, and by a much more respectable writer. The truly ingenious Mr Hume, so justly celebrated as one of the first favourites of the historical muse, has, in his history of England, and more especially in the history of the houses of Tudor and Stuart, represented the character and temper, of the first reformers in a point of view, which undoubtedly shews, that he had not considered them with that close and impartial attention that ought always to precede personal reflections. He has laid it down as a principle, that superstition and enthusiasm are two species of religion that stand in diametrical opposition to each other; and seems to establish it as a fact, that the former is the genius of popery, and the latter the characteristic of the Reformation. Both the principle and its application must appear extremely singular; and three sorts of persons must be more especially surprised at it.

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First, Persons of a philosophical turn, who are accustomed to study human nature, and to describe with precision both its regular and excentric movements, must be surprised to see superstition and fanaticism [b] represented as opposite and jarring qualities. They have been seen often together, holding

[a] See the various answers that were made to this biographer by the ingenious Mr Pye, the learned Dr Neve, and other commendable writers who have appeared in this controversy.

<sup>[</sup>b] I use the word fanasicism here, instead of enthusiasm, to prevent all ambiguity; because, as shall be shewn presently, Mr Hume takes enthusiasm, in its worst scree, when he applies it to the reformers; and in that sense it is not only equivalent to, but is perfectly synonymous with, fanaticism. Besides, this latter term is used indiscriminately with enthusiasm, by this celebrated historian, in characterising the Reformation.

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holding with each other a most friendly correspondence; and indeed if we consider their nature and their essential characters, their union will appear, not only possible, but in some cases natural, if not necessary. Superstition, which consists in false and abject notions of the Deity, in the gloomy and groundless fears of invisible beings, and in the absurd rites, that these notions and these fears naturally produce, is certainly at the root of various branches of fanaticism. For what is fanaticism, but the visions, illuminations, impulses, and dreams of an over heated fancy, converted into rules of faith, hope, worship, and practice? This fanaticism, as it springs up in a melancholy or a chearful complexion, assumes a variety of aspects, and its morose and gloomy forms are certainly most congenial with superstition, in its proper sense. It was probably this consideration that led the author of the article Fanaticism, in the famous Dictionnaire Encyclopedique, published at Paris, to define it [c] as "a blind and passionate zeal, which ariseth from superstitious opinions, and leads its votaries to commit ridiculous, unjust, and cruel actions, not only without shame, but even with certain internal feelings of joy and comfort;" from which the author concludes, that " fanaticism is really nothing more than superstition set in motion." This definition unites perhaps too closely these two kinds of false religion, whose enormities have furnished very ill-grounded pretexts for discrediting and misrepresenting the true. It is, however, a testimony from one of the pretended oracles of modern philosophy, in favour of the compatibility of fanaticism with superstition. These two principles are evidently distinct;

[c] The words of the original are: "Le fanatisme est un zele aveugle et passioné, qui nait des opinions superstitieuses, et fait commettre des actions ridicules, injustes et cruelles, non seulement sans honte, mais avec une sorte de joye et de consolation. Le fanatisme donc n'est que la superstition mise en nouvement."

distinct; because superstition is, generally speaking, the effect of ignorance, or of a judgment perverted by a sour and splenetic temper; whereas fanaticism is the offspring of an inflamed imagination, and may exist where there is no superstition, i. e. no false or gloomy notions of the Divinity. But though distinct, they are not opposite principles; on the contrary, they lend, on many occasions, mutual strength and assistance to each other.

If persons accustomed to philosophical precision will not relish the maxim of the celebrated writer which I have been now considering, so neither, in the second place, can those who are versed in ecclesiastical history look upon superstition as a more predominant characteristic of popery than fanaticism; and yet this is a leading idea, which is not only visible in many parts of this author's excellent History, but appears to be the basis of all the reflexions he employs, and of all the epithets he uses, in his speculations upon the Romish religion.

And nevertheless it is manifest, that the multitudes of fanatics, which arose in the church of Rome before the Reformation, are truly innumerable; and the operations of fanaticism in that church were, at least, as visible and frequent, as the restless workings of superstition; they went, in short, hand in hand, and united their visions and their terrors in the support of the papacy. It is, more especially, well known, that the greatest part of the monastic establishments (that alternately insulted the benignity of Providence by their austerities, and abused it by their licentious luxury), were originally founded in consequence of pretended illuminations, miraculous dreams, and such like wild delusions of an overheated fancy. Whenever a new doctrine was to be established, that could augment the authority of the pope, or fill the coffers of the clergy; whenever a new convent

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convent was to be erected, there was always a vision or a miracle ready to facilitate the business; nor must it be imagined, that forgery and imposture were the only agents in this matter; by no means;—imposture there was; and it was frequently employed; but impostures made use of fanatics; and in return fanatics found impostors, who spread abroad their fame, and turned their visions to profit. Were I to recount with the utmost simplicity, without the smallest addition of ludicrous embellishment, the extasies, visions, seraphic amours, celestial apparitions, that are said to have shed such an odour of sanctity upon the male and female saints of the Romish church; were I to pass in review the famous conformities of St Francis, the illuminations of St Ignatius, and the enormous cloud of fanatical witnesses that have dishonoured humanity in bearing testimony to popery, this dissertation would become a voluminous history. Let the reader cast an eye upon Dr Mosheim's account of those ages that more immediately preceded the Reformation, and he will see what a number of sects, purely fanatical, arose in the bosom of the Romish church.

observed, that even those extravagant fanatics, who produced such disorders in Germany about the commencement of the Reformation, were nursed in the bosom of popery, were professed papists before they adopted the cause of LUTHER, nay, many of them passed directly from popery to fanaticism, without even entering into the outward profession of Lutheranism. It is also to be observed, that besides the fanatics, who exposed themselves to the contempt of the wise upon the public theatre of popery, Seckendorf speaks of a sect that merits of this denomination, which had spread in the Netherlands, before Luther raised his

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his voice against popery, and whose members were engaged, by the terror of penal laws, to dissemble their sentiments; nay, even affected a devout compliance with the external rites of the established worship, until religious liberty, introduced by the reformation, encouraged them to pull off the mask, and propagate their opinions, several of which were licentious and profane.

But, in the third place, the friends of the Reformation must naturally be both surprised and displeased to find enthusiasm, or fanaticism, laid down by Mr Hume as the character and spirit of its founders and abettors, without any exception, or distinction, made in favour of any one of the reformers. That fanaticism was visible in the conduct and spirit of many who embraced the Reformation, is a fact which I do not pretend to deny; and it may be worthy of the reader's curiosity to consider, for a moment, how this came to pass. That religious liberty, which the Reformation introduced and granted (in consequence of its essential principles) indiscriminately to all, to learned and unlearned, rendered this eruption of enthusiasm inevitable. It is one of the imperfections annexed to all human things, that our best blessings have their inconveniences, or, at least, are susceptible of abuse. As liberty is a natural right, but not a discerning principle, it could not open the door to truth without letting error and delusion come in along with it. If reason came forth with dignity, when delivered from the despotism of authority, and the blind servitude of implicit faith; imagination, also set free. and less able to bear the prosperous change, came forth likewise, but with a different aspect, and exposed to view the reveries it had been long obliged to conceal.

Thus many fanatical phantoms were exhibited, which neither arose from the spirit of the Reformation.

formation, nor from the principles of the reformers, but which had been engendered in the bosom of popery, and which the fostering rays of liberty had disclosed; similar in this, to the enlivening beams of the sun, which fructifies indiscriminately the salutary plant in the well-cultivated ground, and the noxious weed in a rank and neglected soil. And as the Reformation had no such miraculous influence (not to speak of the imperfection that attended its infancy, and that has not entirely been removed from its more advanced stages) as to cure human nature of its infirmities and follies, to convert irregular passions into regular principles, or to turn men into angels before the time, it has still left the field open, both for fanaticism and superstition to sow their tares among. the good seed; and this will probably be the case until the end of the world. It is here, that we must seek for the true cause of all that condemnable enthusiasm that has dishonoured the christian name, and often troubled the order of civil society, at different periods of time since the Reformation; and for which the Reformation is no more responsible, than a free government is for the weakness or corruption of those who abuse its lenity and indulgence. The Reformation established the sacred and unalienable right of private judgment; but it could not hinder the private judgment of many from being wild and extravagant.

The Reformation, then, which the multiplied enormities of popery rendered so necessary, must be always distinguished from the abuses that might be, and were often made, of the liberty it introduced. If you ask, indeed, what was the temper and spirit of the first heralds of this happy Reformation, Mr Hume will tell you, that they were universally inflamed with the highest enthusiasm. This assertion, if taken singly, and not compared with other passages relating to the reformers, might

might be understood in a sense consistent witl truth, nay, even honourable to the character c these eminent men. For, if by enthusiasm w understand that spirit of ardor, intrepidity, an generous zeal, which leads men to brave the mor formidable obstacles and dangers in defence ( a cause, whose excellence and importance have made a deep impression upon their minds; th first reformers will be allowed by their warme friends to have been enthusiasts. This species enthusiasm is a noble affection, when fitly place and wisely exerted. It is this generous sensibil ty, this ardent feeling of the great and excellen that forms heroes and patriots; and without i nothing difficult and arduous, that is attende with danger or prejudice to our temporal inte ests, can either be attempted with vigour, or ex cuted with success. Nay, had this ingenious wr ter observed, that the ardor of the first reforme was more or less violent, that it was more or le blended with the warmth and vivacity of hums passions, candour would be obliged to avow the charge.

But it is not in any of these points of view, the our eminent historian considers the spirit, tempe and enthusiasm of the first reformers. enthusiasm he attributes to them is fanaticis in its worst sense. He speaks indeed of the in flexible intrepidity, with which they braved danger torments, and even death itself; but he calls them to funatical and enraged reformers: he indicates, the the whole course of his history, fanaticism as the characteristic of the prostestant religion and i glorious founders; the terms protestant fanatiseis -fanatical churches are interspersed in variou parts of this work; and we never meet with th least appearance of a distinction between the n tional and enthusiastic, the wise and indiscreet frien of the Reformation. In short, we find a phrase

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logy constantly employed upon this subject, which discovers an intention to confound protestantism with enthusiasm, and to make reformers fanatics synonymous terms. We are told, that while absurd rites and burthensome superstitions reigned in the Romish church, the reformers were thrown, by a spirit of opposition, into an enthunastic strain of devotion; and in another place, that these latter placed all merit in a mysterious species of faith, in inward vision, rapture and extacy. It would be endless to quote the passages in which this representation of things is repeated in a great variety of phrases, and artfully insinuated into the mind of the reader, by dexterous strokes of a seducing pencil; which, though scattered here and there, yet gradually unite their influence on the imagination of an uninstructed and unwary reader, and form, imperceptibly, an unfavourable impression of that great event, to which we owe at this day our civil and religious liberty, and our deliverance from a yoke of superstitious and barbarous despotism. Protestants, in all ages and places, are stigmatized by Mr Hume with very dishonourable titles; and it struck me particularly to see even the generous opposers of the Spanish inquisition in Holland, whose proceedings were so moderate, and whose complaints were so humble, until the barbarous yoke of superstition and tyranny became intolerable; it struck me, I say, to see these generous patriots branded with the general character of bigots. This is certainly a severe appellation; and were it applied with much more equity than it is, I think it would still come with an ill grace from a lover of freedom, from a man who lives and writes with security under the auspicious shade of that very liberty which the Reformation introduced, and for which the Belgic heroes (or bigots—if we must call them so) shed their blood. I observe with pain, that the Vol. IV. phraseology L

phraseology employed perpetually by Mr Humel on similar occasions, seem to discover a keen dislike of every opposition made to power in favour of the Reformation. Nay, upon the too general principle which this general writer has diffused through his history, we shall be obliged to brand with the opprobrious mark of fanaticism, those generous friends of civil and religious liberty, who in the Revolution in 1688, opposed the measures of a popish prince and an arbitrary government; and to rank the Burnets, Tillotsons, Stillingfleets, and other immortal ornaments of the protestant name, among the enthusiastic tribe; it is a question, whether even a Boyle, a Newton, or a Locke, will escape a censure, which is lavished without mercy and without distinction.—But my present business is with the first reformers, and to them I return.

Those who more especially merit that title were Luther, Zuingle, Calvin, Melancthon, Bucer, Martyr, Bullinger, Beza, Oecolampadius. and others. Now these were all men of learning, who came forth into the field of controversy (in which the fate of future ages, with respect to liberty, was to be decided) with a kind of arms that did not at all give them the aspect of persons agitated by the impulse, or seduced by the delusions of fanaticism. They pretended not to be called to the work they undertook by visions, or internal illuminations and impulses;—they never attempted to work miracles, nor pleaded a Divine commission;—they taught no new religion, nor laid claim to any extraordinary vocation;—they respected government, practised and taught submission to civil rulers, and desired only the liberty of that conscience which God has made free, and which ceases to be conscience if it be not free. They maintained, that the faith of Chritians was to be determined by the word of God alone they

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they had recourse to reason and argument, to the rules of sound criticism, and to the authority and light of history.—I'hey translated the scriptures into the popular languages of different countries, shd appealed to them as the only test of religious truth. They exhorted Christians to judge for themselves, to search the scriptures, to break sunder the bonds of ignorant prejudice and lawless authority, and to assert that liberty of conmience to which they had an unalienable right as reasonable beings. Mr Hume himself acknowledges, that they offered to submit all religious doctrines to private judgment, and exhorted every one to examine the principles formerly imposed upon him. In short, it was their great and avowed purpose to oppose the gross corruptions and the spiritual tymany of Rome [d], of which Mr Hume himself complains with a just indignation, and which he tensures in as keen and vehement terms as those which were used by Luther and Calvin in their warmest moments.

I have already insinuated, and I acknowledge it here again, that the zeal of the reformers was sometimes intemperate; but I cannot think this circumstance sufficient to justify the aspersion of Fanaticism, which is cast both on the spirit of the Reformation, and the principal agents concerned in it. A man may be over-zealous in the advancement of, what he supposes to be, the true religion, without being entitled to the denomination of a fanatic; unless we depart from the usual tense of this word, which is often enough employed to have acquired, before this time, a determinate signification. The intemperate zeal L2 of

History of Great Britain (such is the title), that were published at Edinburgh in the year 1756; and in which some points, which I have barely mentioned here, are enlarged upon, and illustrated, in an ample and satisfactory manner.

of the reformers was the result of that nardour which takes place in all divisions and parties that are founded upon objects of real or supposed importance; and it may be affirmed, that, in such circumstances, the most generous minds, filled with a persuasion of the goodness of their end and of the uprightness of their intentions are the most liable to transgress the exact bounds of moderation, and to adopt measures, which, in the calm hour of deliberate reflexion, they themselves would not approve. In all great divisions, the warmth of natural temper,—the provocation of unjust and violent opposition,—a spirit of sympathy, which con nects, in some cases, the most dissimilar characters. renders the mild violent, and the phlegmatic warm—nay, frequently the pride of conquest, which—mingles itself, imperceptibly, with the best prin ciples and the most generous views, all these produce or nourish an intemperate zeal; and this zeal is, in some cases, almost inevitable. On the other hand, it may be suspected, that some writers. and Mr Hume among others, may have given too high colours to their descriptions of this intemperate zeal. There is a passage of Sir Robert Cotton, that has much meaning, " most men. " (says he) grew to be frozen in zeal and benum-" med, so that whosoever pretended a little spark " of earnestness, he seemed no less than red fire " hot, in comparision of the other."

Nothing can be more foreign from my temper and sentiments, than the plead to cause of an excessive zeal; more especially, every kind of zeal that approaches to a spirit of intolerance and persecution ought to be regarded with aversion and horror by all who have at heart the interest of genuine Christianity, and the happiness of civil society. There may be, nevertheless, cases, in which a zeal (not that breathes a spirit of persecution, but) that mounts to a certain degree of intemperance

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temperance, may be not only inevitable, but usefol; nay, not only useful, but necessary. This assertion I advance almost against my will-because it is susceptible of great and dangerous abuse the assertion however is true, though the cases must be singularly important and desperate to which such zeal may be applied. It has been observed, that the Reformation was one of these cases, and, all things attentively considered, the observation appears to be entirely just; and the violence of expression and vehement measures employed by some of the reformers, might have been (I do not say that they really were) as much the effect of provident reflexion, as of natural fervour and resentment. To a calculating head, which considered closely, in these times of corruption and darkness, the strength of the court of Rome, the luxury and despotism of the pontifs, the ignorance and licentiousness of the clergy, the superstition and stupidity of the people; in a word, the deep root which the papacy had gained through all these circumstances combined, what was the first thought that must naturally have occurred? No doubt, the improbability that cool philosophy, dispassionate reason and affectionate remonstrances would ever triumph over these multiplied and various supports of popery. And, if a calculating head must have judged in this manner, a generous heart, which considered the blessings that must arise upon mankind with religious liberty and a reformation of the church, would naturally be excited to apply even a violent remedy; if that were necessary, to remove such a desperate and horrible disease. It would really seem, that Luther acted on such a view of things. He began mildly, and did not employ the fire of his zeal, before he saw that it was essential to the success of his cause. Whoever looks into Dr Mosheim's History, or any other impartial ac-L 3 count

count of the X-VIth century, will find, that Luther's opposition to the infamous traffic of indulgences, was carried on, at first, in the most submissive strain, by humble remonstrances addressed to the pope, and the most eminent prelates of the church. These remonstrances were answered, not only by the despotic voice of authority, but also by opprobrious invectives, peradious plots against his person, and the terror of penal laws. Even under these he maintained his tranquillity; and his conduct at the famous diet of Worms, though resolute and steady, was nevertheless both respectful and modest. But when all gentle measures proved ineffectual, then, indeed, he acted with redoubled vigour, and added a new degree of warmth and impetuosity to his zeal; and (I repeat it) reflexion might have dictated those animated proceedings, which were owing, perhaps, merely to his resentment, and the natural warmth of his temper inflamed by opposition. Certain it is, at least, that neither the elegant satires of Erasmus (had he even been a friend to the cause of liberty), nor the timid remonstrances of the gentle Melancthon (who was really such), would ever have been sufficient to bring about a reformation of the church. The former made many laugh, the latter made some reason; but neither of the two could make them act, or set them in motion. In such a crisis, bold speech and ardent resolution were necessary to produce that happy change in the face of religion, which has crowned with inestimable blessings one part of Europe, and has been productive of many advantages even to the other which censures it.

As to Calvin, every one, who has any acquaintance with history, knows how he set out in promoting the Reformation. It was by a work composed with a classic elegance of style; and which, though tinctured with the scholastic theology of the

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the times, breathes an uncommon spirit of good sense and moderation. This work was the Institutes of the Christian Religion, in which the learned writer shews, that the doctrine of the reformers was founded in acripture and reason. Nay, one of the designs of this book was to shew, that the reformers ought not to be confounded with certain fanatics, who, about the time of the Reformation, sprung from the bosom of the church of Rome, and excited tumults and commotions in several places. French monarch (Francis I.), to cover with a specious pretext his barbarous persecution of the friends of the Reformation, and to prevent the resentment of the protestants in Germany, with whom it was his interest to be on good terms, alleged, that his severity fell, only, upon a sect of enthusiasts, who, under the title of Anabaptists, substituted their visions in the place of the doctrines and declarations of the Holy Scriptures. To vindicate the Reformers from this reproach Galvin wrote the book now under consideration; and though the theology that reigns in it be chargeable with some defects, yet it is as remote from the spirit and complexion of fanaticism, as any thing can be. Nor indeed is this spirit visible in any of the writings of Calvin that I have perused. His commentary upon the Old and New Testament is a production that will always be esteemed, on account of its elegant simplicity, and the evident marks it bears of an unprejudiced and impartial inquiry into the plain sense of the sacred writings, and of sagacity and penetration in the investigation of it.

If we were to pass in review the writings of the other eminent reformers, whose names have been already mentioned, we should find abundant matter to justify them in the same respect. They were men of letters, nay, several of them men of taste for the age in which they lived; they culti-

# APPENDIX I.

vated the study of languages, history, and criticism, and applied themselves with indefatigable industry to these studies, which, of all others, are the least adapted to excite or nourish a spirit of fanaticism. They had, indeed, their errors and prejudices; nor perhaps were they few in number; but who is free from the same charge? We have ours too, though they may turn on a different set of objects. Their theology savoured somewhat of the pedantry and jargon of the schools; -- how could it be otherwise, considering the dismal state of philosophy at that period? The advantages we enjoy above them, give them, at least, a title to our candour and indulgence; perhaps to our gratitude, as the instruments who prepared the way through which these advantages have been conveyed to us. To conclude, let us regret their infirmities; let us reject their errors; let us even condemn any instances of ill-judged severity and violence they may have been chargeable with; — but let us never forget, that through perils and obstacles almost unsurmountable, they open the path to that religious liberty, which we cannot too highly esteem, nor be too careful to improve to rational and worthy purposes.

SECTION

## SECTION II.

The General History of the Church.

I. THE Spaniards and Portuguese, if we may CENT. give credit to their historians, exerted SECT. II. themselves, with the greatest vigour and success, The borders in the propagation of the gospelamong the darkened of the nations [a]. And it must, indeed, be confessed, church enthat they communicated some notions, such as larged. they were, of the Christian religion to the inhabitants of America, to those parts of Africa where they carried their arms, and to the islands and maritime provinces of Asia, which thy reduced under their dominion. It is also true, that considerable numbers of these savage people, who had hitherto lived, either under the bondage of the most extravagant superstitions, or in a total ignorance of any object of religious worship, embraced, atleast in outward appearance, the doctrines of the Gospel. But when we consider the methods of conversion that were employed by the Spanish missionaries among these wretched nations, the barbarous laws and inhuman tortures that were used to force them into the profession of Christianity; when it is considered, farther, that the denomination of Christians was conferred upon such of those poor wretches as discovered a blind and

<sup>[</sup>a] See Jos. Franc. Lasitau, Histoire des decouvertes et Conguéles des Portugais dans le nouveau Monde, tom. iii. p. 420. All the relations given by this eloquent writer (who was afterwards created bishop of Sisteron) are taken from the Portuguese historians.—The other writers who have cast light upon this part of Ecclesiastical History, are enumerated by Fabricius, in his Lux Salutar. Evangelii toti orbi exoriens, cap. 42, 43, 48, and 49.

CENT and excessive veneration for their stupid instruction XVI.

SECT. II. tors, and were able, by certain gestures, and the repetition of a little jargon, to perform a few superstitious rites and ceremonies; then, instead of rejoicing at, we shall be tempted to lament, such a propagation of the gospel, and to behold the labours of such miserable apostles with indignation

and contempt. Such is the judgment passed upon these missionaries, not only by those whom the church of Rome places in the list of beretics, but also by many of the most pious and eminent of

her own doctors, in Erance, Germany, Spain, and Italy.

poutifs in the propagation of

The seal of II. When the Roman pontifs saw their ambition the Roman checked by the progress of the Reformation, which deprived them of a great part of their spiritual dominion in Europe, they turned their lordly Christianity views towards the other parts of the globe, and became more solicitous than ever about the propagation of the gospel among the nations that lay yet involved in the darkness of paganism. they considered as the best method of making amends for the loss they had sustained in Europe, and the most specious pretext for assuming to themselves, with some appearance of justice, the The famous society, which, in the year 1540, took the denomination of Jesuits, or, the company of Jesus, seemed every way proper to assist the court of Rome in the execution of this extensive design. And accordingly, from their first rise, this peculiar charge was given them, that they should form a certain number of their order for the propagation of Christianity among the unenlightened nations, and that these missionaries should be at the absolute disposal of the Roman pontif, and always ready, at a moment's warning, to repair to whatever part of the world he should

for the exercise of their ministry [b]. Thecen T. many histories and relations which mention the Ster. II. labours, perils, and exploits of that prodigious multitude of Jesuits, who were employed in the conversion of the African, American, and Indian infidels, abundantly shew, with what fidelity and zeal the members of this society executed the orders of the Roman pontifs [c]. And their labours would have undoubtedly crowned them with immortal glory, had it not appeared evident, from the most authentic records, that the greatest part of these new apostles had more in view the promoting the ambitious views of Rome, and the advancing the interests of their own society, than the propagation of the Christian religion, or the **bonour of its divine Author** [d]. It may also be affirmed.

When the fanatic Ignatius first solicited the confirmation of his order by the Roman pontif, Paul III. the learned and worthy Cardinal Guidiccioni opposed his request with great vehemence. But this opposition was vanquished by the desterity of Ignatius, who, changing the articles of his institation, in which he had promised obedience to the pope with certain restrictions, turned it in such a manner as to bind his order by a solemn vow of implicit, blind, and unlimited submission and obedience to the Roman pontif. This change prodaced the desired effect, and made the popes look upon the Jesuits as the chief support of their authority; and hence the seal which Rome has ever shewn for that order, and that even at present, when their segret enormities have been brought to light, and procured the suppression of their society in Portugal and in France, where their power was so extensive. It is indeed remarkable, that Ignatius and his company, in the wery same charter of their order in which they declare their implicit and blind allegiance to the court of Rome, promise a like implicit and unlimited allegiance to the general of their society, notwithstanding the impossibility of serving two absolute masters, whose commands may be often contradictory. See Histoire des Religieux de la Compagnie de Jesus, printed at Utrecht in 1741, tom. i. p. 77, &c.

[c] See Jo. Alb. Fabricii Lux Evangelii toti orbi exoriens,

cap. xxxiii. p. 550.

[d] B. Christ. Eberh. Weismanni Oratio de virtutibus et vițiis Mission. Romanar. in Oratt. ejus Academ. p. 286. Taffirmed, from records of the highest credit and xVI. authority, that the inquisition erected by the Jesuita at Goa, and the penal laws whose terrors they emiployed so freely in propagation of the gospel, contributed much more than their arguments and exhortations, which were but sparingly used, to engage the Indians to embrace Christianity [e]. The converting zeal of the Franciscans and Dominicans, which had, for a long time, been not only cooled, but almost totally extinguished, was animated anew by the example of the Jesuita. And several other religious orders, that slumbered in their cells, were roused from their lethargy, if not by a principle of envy, at least by a spirit of

The propagation of the gospel in India, Japan, and China.

emulation.

selves by their zealous and laborious attempts to extend the limits of the church, none acquired a more shining reputation than Francis Xavier, who is commonly called the Apostle of the Indians [f]. An undaunted resolution, and no small degree of genius and sagacity, rendered this famous missionary one of the properest persons that could be employed in such an arduous task. Accordingly, in the year 1522, he set sail for the Portuguese settlements in India, and, in a short space of time, spread the knowledge of the Christian, or, to speak more properly, of the popish religion,

[e] See the Hist. de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom. ii. p. 171, 207.

<sup>[</sup>f] The late king of Portugal obtained for Xavier, or rather for his memory, the title of Protector of the Indies, from Benedict XIV. in the year 1747. See the Lettres Edificates et Curiouses des Missions Etrangeres, tom. xliii. Pref. p. 36. The body of this sainted missionary lies interred at Goa, where it is worshipped with the highest marks of devotion. There is also a magnificent church at Cotati dedicated to Xavier, to whom the inhabitants of that Portuguese settlement pay the most devout tribute of veneration and worship. See Lettres Edifiantes, &c. tom. iii. p. 85, 89, 203, tom. v. p. 38—48, tom. vi. p. 78.

teligion, over a great part of the continent, and CENT: in several of the islands of that remote region. Szcr. II. From thence, in the year 1529, he passed into Jopan, and laid there, with amazing rapidity, the foundations of the famous church, which fourished, during so many years, in that vast empire. His indefatigable zeal prompted him to attempt the conversion of the Chinese; and with this view he embarked for that extensive and powerful kingdom, in sight of which he ended his days in the year 1552 [g]. After his death, wher members of his insinuating order penetrated into China. The chief of these was Matthew Ricci, an Italian, who, by his skill in the mathematics, became so acceptable to the Chinese nobility, and even to their emperor, that he obtained, both for himself and his associates, the liberty of explaining to the people the doctrines ef. the gospel  $\lceil h \rceil$ . This famous missionary may, therefore, be considered as the parent and founder of the Christian churches, which, though often dispersed and tossed to and fro by the storms of persecution, subsist, nevertheless, still in Gbina [i].

princes, who had thrown off the papal yoke, being tempts of the Protestconfined within the limits of Europe, the churches and tothat were under their protection could contribute wards the propagation but little to the propagation of the gospel in those of the gosdistant pel in foreign parts.

[b] B. Du Halde. Description de l'Empire de la Chine, tem.

iii. p. 84. edit. Holiand.

<sup>[</sup>g] See the writers enumerated by Fabricius, in his Lux Evangelii, &c. cap. xxxix. p. 677. Add to these. Lasitau, Histoire des Decouvertes des Portuguis dans le nouveau Monde, tom. iii. p. 419, 424. tom. iv. p. 63, 102.—Histoire de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom. i. p. 92.

<sup>[</sup>i] It appears, however, that before the arrival of Ricci in China, some of the Dominicans had already been there, though to little purpose. See Le Quien, Or ens Christianus, tem in. P. 1354.

CENT. distant regions of which we have been speaking. It such is, however, recorded in history, that, in the year from Geneva to convert the Americans [k], though it is not well known who was the promoter of this pious design, nor with what success it was carried into execution. The English also, who, towards the conclusion of this century, sent colonies into the northern parts of America, transplanted with them the reformed religion, which they themselves professed; and, as their possessions were extended and multiplied from time to time, their religion also made a considerable progress among that rough and uncivilized people. We learn, moreover, that about this time the Swedes exerted their religions goal in converting to Christianity maner religious zeal in converting to Christianity many of the inhabitants of Finland and Lapland, of whom a considerable number had hitherto retained the impious and extravagant superstitions of their Pagan ancestors.

mies of Christiaaity.

Pagan ancestors.

V. It does not appear, from authentic records of history, that the sword of persecution was drawn against the Gospel, or any public opposition made to the progress of Christianity, during this century. And it would betray a great ignorance, both of the situation, opinions, and maxims of the Turks, to imagine, that the war they waged against the Christians was carried on upon religious principles, or with a view to maintain and promote the doctrines of Mahomet. On the other hand, it is certain, that there lay concealed, in different parts of Europe, several persons. persons;

<sup>[</sup>k] Picteti Oratio de Trophæis Christi, in Orat. ejus, p. 570. There is no doubt but that the doctors here mentioned were those which the illustrious admiral Coligni invited into. France, when, in the year 1555, he had formed the project of sending a colony of Protestants into Brazil and America. See Charlevoix, Histoire de la Nouvelle France, tom. i. p. 22.

persons, who entertained a virulent enmity against c E N T. religion in general, and, in a more especial man-XVI.

ther, against the religion of the gospel; and who, both in their writings and in private conversation, sowed the seeds of impiety and error, and instilled their odious principles into weak, unsteady, and credulous minds. In this pernicious and unhappy class are generally placed several of the Peripatetic philosophers, who adorned Italy by their erudition, and particularly Pomponatius; several French wits and philosophers, such as John Bodin, Rabclais, Montagne, Bonaventure des Perieres, Dolet, Charron; several Italians, at whose head appears the Roman pontif Leo X. followed by Peter Bembo, Politian, Jordano Bruno, Ochino; and some Germans, such as Theophrastus Paracelsus, Nicholas Taurellus, and others [/]. It is even reported, that, in certain provinces of France and Italy, schools were erected, from whence whole warms of these impious doctors soon issued out to deceive the simple and unwary. This accus-ation will not be rejected in the lump, by such as are acquainted with the spirit and genius of these times; nor can it be said with truth, that all the persons charged with this heavy reproach were entirely guiltless. It is nevertheless certain, on the other hand, that, upon an accurate and impartial examination of this matter, it will appear, that the accusation brought against many of them is entirely groundless; and that, with respect to several who may be worthy of censure in a certain degree, their errors are less pernicious and criminal, than they are uncharitably or rashly represented to be.

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<sup>[1]</sup> See Reimanni Historia Atheismi et Atheorum, Hildes. 1725, in 8vo.—Jo. Franc. Buddens, Thesibus de Atheismo et Superetisione, cap. i.—Dictionnaire de Bayle, passim.

The public that arose from the rectoration of letters.

CENT. VI. It is, at the same time, evident, that, in SECT. II this century, the arts and sciences were carried to a degree of perfection unknown to preceding ages; advantages and from this happy renovation of learning, the European churches derived the most signal and inestimable advantages, which they also transmitted to the most remote and distant nations: The benign influence of true science, and its tendency to improve both the form of religion and the institutions of civil policy, were perceived by many of the states and princes of Europe. Hence large sums were expended, and great zeal and industry employed, in promoting the progress of knowledge, by sounding and encouraging literary societies, by protecting and exciting a spirit of emulation among men of genius, and by annexing distinguished honours and advantages to the culture of the sciences. And it is particularly worthy of observation, that this was the period, when the wise and salutary law, which excludes ignorant and illiterate persons from the sacred functions of the Christian ministry, acquired, at length, that force which it still retains in the greatest part of the Christian world. There still remained, however, some seeds of that ancient discord between religion and philosophy, that had been sown and fomented by ignorance and fanaticism; and there were found, both among the friends and enemies of the Reformation, several well meaning, but inconsiderate men, who, in spite of common sense, maintained with more vehemence and animosity than ever, that vital religion and piety could never flourish until it was totally separated from learning and science, and nourished by the holy simplicity that reigned in the primitive ages of the church.

VII. The first rank in the literary world was The flourishing state now held by those, who consecrated their studious of philosohours, and their critical sagacity to the publicaphy-

tions

aton, correction, and illustration of the most face ENT. mous Greek and Latin authors of ancient times, SECT. II. to the study of antiquity and the languages, and to the culture of eloquence and poetry. We see by the productions of this age (that yet remain, and continue to excite the admiration of the learned), that in all the provinces of Europe these branches of literature were cultivated with a kind of enthusiasm, by such as were most distinguished by their taste and genius; nay, what is still more extraordinary (and perhaps not a little extravagant), the welfare of the church, and the prosperity of the state, was supposed to depend upon the improvement of these branches of erudition, which were considered as the very essence of true and solid knowledge. If such encomiums were swelled beyond the bounds of truth and wisdom by enthusiastical philologists, it is, nevertheless, certain; that the species of learning, here under consideration, was of the highest importance, as it opened the way that led to the treasures of solid wisdom, to the improvement of genius, and thus undoubtedly contributed, in a great measure, to deliver both reason and religion from the prepossessions of ignorance, and the servitude of superstition  $\lceil m \rceil$ . And, therefore, we ought not to be

[m] Many vehement debates have been carried on concraing the respective merit of Literature and Philosophy. But these debates are almost as absurd as a comparison that should be made between the means and the end, the instrument and its effect. Literature is the key by which we often open the treasures of wisdom, both human and divine. as the sordid miser converts absurdly the means into an end, and acquires a passion for the shining metal, considered abstractedly from the purposes it was designed to serve, so the Pedantic philologist erects literature into an independent science, and contemns the divine treasures of philosophy, which it was designed both to discover and to illustrate. Hence that wretched tribe of "word-catchers that live on 'yllables" (as Pope, I think, happily expresses their tasteless VOL. IV. pursuits). SECT. II. exaggerate the merit and dwell beyond measure on the praises of those who were our first guidenter from the regions of darkness and error, into the

luminous paths of evidence and truth.

The state of VIII. Though the lovers of philology and Belle Lettres were much superior in number to thos who turned their principal views to the stud of philosophy, yet the latter were far from being contemptible either in point of number or capa city. The philosophers were divided into two classes, of which the one was wholly absorbed in contemplation, while the other was employed in the investigation of truth, and endeavoured by experience, as well as by reasoning, to trace ou the laws and operations of Nature. The forme were subdivided into two sects, of which the one followed certain leaders, while the other, unre strained by the dictates of authority, struck out & new way for themselves, following freely their own inventions. Those who submitted to the direction of certain philosophical guides, enlisted themselves under the standards of Aristotle or those of Plato, who continued still to have many admirers, especially in *Italy*. Nor were the followers of Aristotle agreed among themselves; they all acknowledged the Stagirite 2: their chief, but they followed him through ver different paths. Some were for retaining the ancient method of proceeding in philosophica pursuits, which their doctors falsely called the Peripatetic system. Others pleaded for the pur and unmixed philosophy of Aristotle, and re commended the writings of that Grecian sage th

pursuits), who make the republic of letters groan under the commentaries, annotations, various readings, &c. and forge that the knowledge of words and languages was intended lead us to the improvement of the mind, and to the knowleds of things.

the source of wisdom, and as the system which CENT. Was most adapted, when properly illustrated and SYCH. III. explained, to the instruction of youth. A third sort of Aristotelian, who differed equally from these now mentioned, and of whom the celebrated Melancthon was the chief, pursued another method. They extracted the marrow out of the lucubrations of Aristotle, illustrated it by the aids of genuine literature and the rules of good criticism, and corrected it by the dictates of right reason and the doctrines and principles of true religion.

Of those who struck out a path to themselves in the regions of philosophy, without any regard to that which had been opened by ancient sages, and pursued by their followers, Cardan [n], Telesius [o], and Campa-

[n] Cardan was a man of a bold, irregular, enterprizing genius, who, by a wild imagination, was led into the study of astrology and magic, by which he excited the astonishment, and attracted the veneration of the multitude, while his real merit as a philosopher was little known. He was accused of atheism, but seems much rather chargeable with superstition. His life and character was an amazing mixture of wisdom and folly, and nothing can give a more unfavourable idea of his temper and principles than the hideous portrait he has drawn of himself in his book De genituris. His knowledge of physic and mathematics was considerable, and his notions of natural philosophy may be seen in his famous book De subtilitate es veritate rerum, in which some important truths and discoveries are mixed with the most fanatical visions, and the most extravagant and delirious effusions of mystical folly. See the ample and judicious account that has been given of the character and philosophy of this writer (whose voyage to England and Scotland is well known) by the learned Brucker, in his Historia Critica Philosophiæ, tom. iv. part II. lib. i. cap. iii.

born A. D. 1508, at Cosensa, in the kingdom of Naples, and was the restorer of the philosophy formerly taught by Parmenides, upon whose principles he built a new system, or, at least, a system which appeared new, by the elegant connection

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which

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## The State of Learning and Philosophy.

CENT. Campanella [p], hold, deservedly, the first XVI.

SECT. II. rank, as they were undoubtedly men of superior genius,

which Telesius gave to its various parts, and the arguments used to maintain and support it against the philosophy of Aristotle. It was the vague and uncertain method of reasoning which the Stagirite had introduced into natural philosophy. that engaged Telesius to compose his famous book De principiis rerum naturalium. In this work, after having refuted the visionary principles of the Aristotelian philosophy, he substitutes in their place such as are immediately derived from the testimony of the senses, even heat and cold, from which, like Parmenides, he deduces the nature, origin, qualities, and changes of all material beings. To these two principles he adds a third, viz. matter, and on these three builds, with dexterity enough, his physical system; for a part of which he seems also to have been indebted to a book of Plutarch, De primo frigido. It will be entertaining to the philosophical reader, to compare this work of Telesius, with Lord Bacon's physical account of the story of Cupid and Coelus, in his book De principiis et originibus, &c.

[p] Campanella, a native of Calabria, made a great noise in the seventeenth century, by his innovations in philosophy. Shocked at the atheism and absurdities of the Aristotelian system, he acquired early a contempt of it, and turned his pursuits towards something more solid, perusing the writings of all the ancient sages, and comparing them with the great volume of nature, to see whether the pretended copies resembled the original. The sufferings that this man endured are almost incredible; but they were said to be inflicted on him in consequence of the treasonable practices that were imputed to him, partly against the court of Spain, and partly against the kingdom of Naples, which he had formed the design of delivering into the hands of the Turks. He was freed from his prison and tortures by the interposition of Pope Urban VIII. who gave him particular marks of his favour and esteem; and, finding that he was not safe at Rome, had him conveyed to Paris, where he was honoured with the protection of Lewis XIII. and cardinal Richlieu, and ended his days in As to the writings and philosophy of this great man, they are tinged, indeed, with the colour of the times, and bear, in many places, the marks of a chimerical and undisciplined imagination; but, among a few visionary notions, they contain a great number of important truth's. He undertook an entire reformation of philosophy, but was unequal to the task. For an account of his principles of logic, ethics, and natural philosophy, see Brucker's Hist. Critica Philosophice,

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enius, though too much addicted to the sug. CRNT. estions and visions of an irregular fancy. To see II. Laese may be added Peter Ramus, that subtile and ingenious French philosopher, who, by attempting to substitute in the place of Aristotle's logic, a method of reasoning more adapted to the use of rhetoric and the improvement of eloquence, excited such a terrible uproar in the Gallic schools, Nor must we omit here the mention of Theophrastus Paracelsus, who, by an assiduous observation of nature, by a great number of experiments indefatigably repeated, and by applying the penetrating force of fire [q] to discover the first principles of elements of bodies, endeavoured to cast new light and evidence on the important science of natural philosophy. As the researches of this industrious inquirer into nature excited the admiration of all, his example was consequently followed by many; and hence arose a new sect of philosophers, who assumed the de-Pomination of Theosophists [r], and who, placing Little confidence in the decisions of human reason,  $M_3$ 

Dut unjustly; he was also accused of suggesting cruel mea-

Three against the protestants, and not without reason.

In [q] The principal merit of Paracelous consisted in inenting, or at least restoring from oblivion and darkness, the
important science of chemistry, giving it a regular form, reucing it into a connected system, and applying it most sucessfully to the art of healing, which was the peculiar profesion of this philosopher, whose friends and enemies have drawn
im in the falsest colours. His application to the study of
engic, which he treats of in the tenth volume of his works,
ander the denomination of the Sagacious Philosophy, is a
circumstance dishonourable to his memory, and nothing can
iscover a more total absence of common sense and reasoning
than his discourses on that subject. As to his philosophical
stem, it is so obscure, and so contradictory, that we shall
not pretend to delineate it here.

[r] See, for an ample account of the lives, transactions, and stems of these philosophers, Brucker's Historia Critica Phi-

Losophia.

C E N T. or the efforts of speculation, attributed all to diving SECT. II. illumination and repeated experience.

The method, of teaching theology improved,

IX. This revolution in philosophy and literature, together with the spirit of emulation that animated the different sects or classes into which the learned men of this age were divided, produced many happy effects of various kinds. in a more particular manner, brought into disrenute, though it could not at once utterly eradicate that intricate, barbarous, and insipid method of teaching theology, that had universally prevailed hitherto in all the schools and pulpits of Christen-The sacred writings, which, in the preceding ages, had been either entirely neglected, or very absurdly explained, were now much more consulted and respected in the debates and writings of the Christian doctors than they had formerly been; the sense and language of the inspired writers were more carefully studied and more accurately unfolded; the doctrines and precepts of religion taught with more method, connexion, and perspicuity; and that dry, barren, and unaffecting language, which the ancient schoolmen affected so much in their theological compositions, was wholly exploded by the wiser part of the divines of this century. It must not however be imagined, that this reformation of the schools was so perfect, as to leave no new improvements to be made in succeeding ages; this, indeed, was far from being the case. Much imperfection yet remained in the method of treating theology, and many things, which had great need of a correcting hand, were left untouched. It would, nevertheless, be either an instance of ingratitude, or a mark of great ignorance, to deny this age the honour of having begun what was afterwards more happily finished, and of having laid the foundations of that striking superiority, which the divines

Exines of succeeding ages obtained over those of CENT.

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X. Nor did the improvements, which have been now mentioned, as proceeding from the and the give and estoration of letters and philosophy, extend only spirit of the to the method of conveying theological instruction, Christian religion but purified moreover the science of theology better exitself. For the true nature, genius, and design plained. of the Christian religion, which even the most learned and pious doctors of antiquity had but imperfectly comprehended, were now unfolded with evidence and precision, and drawn, like truth, from an abyss in which they had hitherto lain too much concealed. It is true, the influence of error was far from being totally suppressed, and many false and absurd doctrines are still maintained and propagated in the Christian world. But. it may nevertheless be affirmed, that the Christian societies, whose errors at this day are the most numerous and extravagant, have much less absurd and perverse notions of the nature and design of the gospel, and the duties and obligations of those that profess it, than were entertained by those doctors of antiquity, who ruled the church with an absolute authority, and were considered as the chief oracles of theology. It may further be observed, that the Reformation contributed much to soften and civilize the manners of many nations, who, before that happy period, were sunk in the most savage stupidity, and carried the most rude and unsociable aspect. It must indeed be confessed, that a variety of circumstances combined to produce that lenity of character, and that milder temperature of manners, maxims, and actions that discovered themselves gradually, and increased, from day to day, in the greatest part of the European nations after the period that Luther rendered so famous. It is nevertheless evident, beyond all contradiction, that the disputes con-M 4 cerning

T cerning religion, and the accurate and rational in avvi.

quiries into the doctrines and duties of Christianity to which these disputes gave rise, had a great term dency to eradicate out of the minds of men that ferocity that had been so long nourished by the barbarous suggestions of unmanly surperstition. It is also certain, that at the very dawn of this happy revolution in the state of Christianity, and even before its salutary effects were manifested in all their extent, pure religion had many sincere and fervent votaries, though they were concealed from public view by the multitudes of fanatics with which they were surrounded on all sides.

SECTIO N

# SECTION III.

The Particular History of the Church.

#### PART I.

The History of the Ancient Churches.

#### CHAP I.

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The HISTORY of the ROMAN or LATIN CHURCH.

THE Roman or Latin church is a system CENT.

of government where of government, whose jurisdiction ex-SECT. IIL tends to a great part of the known world, though PART 1. its authority has been circumscribed within nar-The Roman rower limits since the happy revolution that, in pontif,many places, delivered Christianity from the yoke how elected; of superstition and spiritual tyranny. This system of ecclesiastical policy, extensive as it is, is under the direction of the bishop of Rome alone, who, by virtue of a sort of hereditary succession, claims the authority, prerogatives, and rights of St Peter, the supposed prince of the apostles, and gives himself out for the supreme head of the universal church, the vicegerent of Christ upon earth. This lordly ruler of the church is, at this time, elected to his high office by the chosen members of the Roman clergy, who bear the ancient denomination of cardinals. Of these, six are bisbots within the precincts of Rome; fifty are ministers of the Roman churches, and are called priests or presbyters; and fourteen are inspectors of the bospitals and charity-houses, and are called deacons, These cardinals, while the papal chair is vacant, and

CENT. in every one of which, one or more cardinals pre-XVI. SECT. III.

PART upon the prerogatives of the pontif, has been long suppressed or rather distributed among the cardinals who belong to thes congregation, and whose decisions come under the supreme cognizance of his Holiness. III. The congregation for the propagation of the Roman Catholic Faith, founded under the pontificate of Gregory XV. composed of eighteen cardinals, one of the secretaries of state, a prothonotary, a secretary of the inquisition, and other members of less rank. Here it is that the deliberations are carried on, which relate to the extirpation of heresy, the appointment of missionaries, &c. This congregation has built a most beautiful and magnificent palace in one of the most agreeable situations that could be chosen at Rome, where proselytes to popery from foreign countries are lodged and nourished gratis, in a manner suitable to their rank and condition, and instructed in those branches of knowledge to which the bent of their genius points. prelates, curates, and vicars also, who are obliged, without any fault of theirs, to abandon the places of their residence, are entertained charitably in this noble edifice in a manner proportioned to their station in the church. IV. The congregation designed to explain the decisions of the council of Trent. V. The congregation of the Index, whose principal business is to examine manuscripts and books that are designed for publication, to decide whether the people may be permitted to read them, to correct those books whose errors are not numerous, and which contain useful and salutary truths, to condemn those whose principles are heretical and pernicious, and to grant the peculiar privilege of perusing heretical books to certain persons. This congregation, which is sometimes held in the presence of the pope, but generally in the palace of the cardinal-president, has a more extensive jurisdiction than that of the inquisition, as it not only takes cognizance of those books that contain doctrines contrary to the Roman Catholic faith, but of those also that concern the duties of morality, the discipline of the church, and the interests of society. Its name is derived from the alphabetical tables, or indexes of heretical books and authors, which have been composed by its appointment. VI. The congregation for maintaining the rights and immunities of the clergy, and of the Knights of Malta. This congregation was formed by Urban VIII. to decide the disputes, and remove the difficulties and inconveniencies that arose from the trials of ecclesiastics, before princes, or other lay-judges. VII. The congregation relating. to the Bishops and regular Clergy, instituted by Sixtus V. to decide the debates which arise between the bishops and their diocesans, and to compose the differences that happened so frequently

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nerally approved of by the Roman pontif, who SECT. III. has not a right, without alleging the most PART. weighty

frequently among the monastic orders. VIII. The congregation, appointed by Gregory XIV. for examining into the capacity and learning of the bishops. IX. Another for enquiring into their lives and morals. X. A third for obliging them to reside in their dioceses, or to dispense them from that obligation. XI. The congregation for suppressing monasteries, i. e. such whose revenues are exhausted, and who thereby become a charge upon the public. XII. The congregation of the Apostolic Visitation, which names the visitors, who perform the duties and visitations of the churches and convents within the district of Rome, to which the pope is obliged as archbishop of that city. XIII. The congregation of Relics, designed to examine the marks, and to augment the number of these instruments of superstition. XIV. The congregation of indulgences, designed to examine the case of those who have recourse to this method of quieting the conscience. XV. The congregation of Rites, which Sixtus V. appointed to regulate and invent the religious ceremonies that are to be observed in the worship of each new saint that is added to the Kalendar.

These are the congregations of cardinals, set apart for administering the spiritual affairs of the church; and they are undoubtedly, in some respects, a check upon the power of the pontif; enormous as it may be. There are six more, which relate to the temporal government of the papal territories. In these congregations, where the pope is never present, all things are transacted which relate to the execution of public justice in civil or criminal matters, the levying of taxes, the providing the cities and provinces with good governors, the relieving those who are unjustly oppressed by subordinate magistrates, the coinage, the care of the rivers, aqueducts, bridges, roads, churches, and public edifices.

[d] The court of Rome is very particularly and accurately described by Aymon (who had been, before his conversion to the protestant religion, domestic chaplain to Innocent XI.) in a book entitled, Tableau de la Cour de Rome, of which the first edition was published at the Hague, in 8vo, in the year 1707, and the second in 1726.—See also Relation de la Cour de Rome, et des Ceremonies qui s'y observent, which father Labat has translated into French, from the Italian of Jerom Limadoro, and subjoined to his Voyages en Espagne et Italia, tom. viii. p. 105.—For an account of the Roman congregations, &c. see Doroth. Ascian. De Montibus Pietatis Romanis, p. 510. as also Hunold. Plettenberg, Notitia Tribunal. et Congregat. Curiæ Romanæ, Hildefiæ, in 8vo, 1693.

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CENT. weighty and evident reasons, to reverse what they SECT. III. pronounce to be just and expedient. This form of PART I ecclesiastical government is, doubtless, a check to the authority of the pope; and hence it is, that many things are transacted at Rome in a manner that is in direct opposition to the sentiments of its spiritual ruler. This may serve to shew us, that those persons are little acquainted with the nature and limits of the papal hierarchy, who pretend, that all the iniquitous proceedings of the court of Rome, the calamities it has occasioned, the contentions, rebellions, and tumults it has excited, are to be entirely and wholly laid to the charge of the

Roman pontif [e].

Debates arise concerning the power of pontif.

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III. The power of the Roman pontif hath excited debates even among those that are under the papal hierarchy; and the spiritual subjects of this the Roman pretended head of the church, are very far from being agreed with respect to the extent of his authority and jurisdiction. Hence it happens, that this authority and dominion are not the same in all places, having a larger scope in some provinces, and being reduced within narrower bounds in others. If, indeed, we consider only the pretensions of the pontif, then we shall find that his power is unlimited and supreme; for there are no prerogatives that can flatter ambition, which he does not claim for himself and his court. only pretends, that the whole power and majesty of

> [e] Hence arises that important distinction, frequently employed by the French and other nations in their debates with the Roman pontif; I mean, the distinction between the Pope of Rome and the Court of Rome. The latter is often loaded with the bitterest reproaches and the heaviest accusations. while the former is spared, and in some measure excused. Nor is this distinction by any means groundless; since the cardinals and congregations, whose rights and privileges are held sacred, undertake and execute many projects without the knowledge, and sometimes against the will and consent, of the Roman pontif.

of the church reside in his person, and are trans- CRNT.

XVI.

mitted into certain portions, from him to the in-SECT. III. ferior bishops, but moreover asserts the absolute PARTI. infallibility of all decisions and decrees that he pronounces from his lordly tribunal These arrogant pretensions are, however, opposed by many, and chiefly by the French nation, which expressly maintains, that every bishop receives immediately from Christ himself a portion of that spiritual power which is imparted to the church; that the collective sum, or whole of this power, is lodged in the collective body of its pastors, or, which is the same thing, in a general council, lawfully assembled; and that the pontif, considered personally, and as distinct from the church, is liable to error. This complicated and important controversy may be easily brought within narrower bounds, and may be reduced to the following plain question; viz. Is the Roman pontif, properly speaking, the Lawgiver of the church, or, is he no more than the Guardian and Depositary of the laws enacted by Christ and by the church? There is no prospect of seeing this question decided, nor the debates terminated to which it has given rise; since the contending parties are not even agreed about the proper and lawful judge of this important controversy [f]. Some great revolution can only effect the decision of this matter.

IV. The church of Rome lost much of its an-The decleration splendor and majesty, as soon as Luther, sion of the and church of Rome.

If The arguments employed by the creatures of the Roman pontif in defence of his unlimited authority, may be seen in Bellarmine and other writers, of which an enormous collection has been made by Roccaberti; and, what is not a little extraordinary, a French writer, named Petitdidier, appeared in defence of the pope's pretensions, in a book published at Luxemburg, in the year 1724, Sur l'Authorité et Lafallibilité des Papes. The sentiments of the Gallican church, and the arguments by which it opposes the pretensions of Rome, may be seen in the writings of Richer and Launoy.

CENT and the other luminaries of the Reformation, had XVI.

ELCT. III. exhibited to the view of the European nations the PART I. Christian religion restored, at least to a considerable part of its native purity, and delivered from many of the superstitions under which it had

able part of its native purity, and delivered from many of the superstitions under which it had lain so long disfigured. Among the most opulent states of Europe, several withdrew entirely from the jurisdiction of Rome; in others, certain provinces threw off the yoke of papal tyranny; and upon the whole, this defection produced a striking diminution both of the wealth and power of the Roman pontifs. It must also be observed, that even the kings, princes, and sovereign states, who adhered to the religion of Rome, yet changed their sentiments with respect to the claims and pretensions of its bishop. If they were not persuaded by the writings of the protestants to renounce the superstitions of popery, yet they received most useful instructions from them in other matters of very great moment. They drew from these writings important discoveries of the groundless claims and unlawful usurpations of the Roman pontifs, and came, at length, to perceive, that, if the jurisdiction and authority of Rome continued the same that it was before the rise of Luther. the rights of temporal princes, and the majesty of civil government would, sooner or latter, be absorbed in the gulph of papal avarice and ambition. Hence it was, that most of the sovereign states of Europe, partly by secret and prudent measures, partly by public negociations and remonstrances, set bounds to the daring ambition of Rome, which aimed at nothing less than universal dominion both in ecclesiastical and civil affairs; nor did the Roman pontif think it either safe or expedient to have recourse to the ancient arms of the church. war and excommunication, in order to repel these attacks upon his authority. Even those very kingdoms, who acknowledged the Roman pontif

as the lawgiver of the church, and an infallible c E N T. guide, confine, nevertheless, his power of enacting XVI. laws within narrow limits.

V. In this declining state of their affairs, it was The menatural for the humbled pontifs to look about for theds emsome method of repairing their losses; and, for ployed by this purpose, they exerted much more zeal and the Roman industry, than had been shewn by their predeces-repair their sors, in extending the limits of their spiritual do-losses. minion beyond Europe, and left no means unemployed of gaining proselytes and adherents in the Indies, both among the pagan nations and the Christian sects. The Jesuits, as we have already had occasion to observe, were the first mis-Missions. sionaries that were sent for this purpose into these distant parts of the world; but able men, selected out of the other monastic orders, were afterwards employed in this arduous undertaking. If; however, we except the exploits of Francis XA-VIER, and his companions in *India*, China, and Japan, of which notice has been taken above, there were no great matters effected in this century; as, generally speaking, the persons who were set a-Part to execute this grand project, were not as et endowed with that experience and dexterity that it necessarily required, and set about the work with more zeal than prudence and knowledge.

The Portuguese had, in the preceding century, Opened a passage into the country of the Abyssimians, who professed the doctrine, and observed the religious rites, of the Monophysites; and this offered a favourable occasion of reducing this People under the papal yoke. Accordingly, JOHN BERMUDES was sent into Ethiopia for this purpose; and, that he might appear with a certain degree of dignity, he was clothed with the title of Patriarch of the Abyssinians. The same im-Portant commission was afterwards given to IGNA-Tius Loyola, and the companions of his la-VOL. IV. bours;

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CENT. bours [g]; and, at their first setting out, seve-SECT. III. ral circumstances, and particularly a war with a

PART 1. neighbouring prince, which the Abyssinian monarch was desirous of terminating by the powerful succours of the Portuguese, seemed to promise them a successful and happy ministry. But the event did not answer this fond expectation; and, in some time, if appeared plainly, that the Abyssinians stood too firm in the faith of their ancestors, to be easily engaged to abandon and forsake it; so that, towards the conclusion of this century, the Jesuits had almost lost all hopes of succeeding in their attempts  $\lceil b \rceil$ .

The Egyptians and Arme-MIADS.

VI. The Egyptians, or Copts, who were closely connected with the Abyssinians in their religious sentiments, and also in their external forms of worship, became next the objects of Rome's ambitious zeal; and, in the year 1562, Christopher Roderic, a Jesuit of note, was sent, by the express order of Pope Pius IV. to propagate the cause of popery among that people. This ecclesiastic, notwithstanding the rich presents and subtle arguments by which he attempted to change the sentiments, and shake the constancy of Ga-BRIEL [i], who was at that time patriarch of Alexandria, returned to Rome with no other effect of his embassy than fair words, and a few compli-

[g] It is certainly by mistake that Dr Mosheim mentions Loyola as having made a voyage into Abyssinia. Jesuits were sent, at different periods to that country, and with little success; but their founder was never there in person.

[b] See Ludolfi Histor. Æthiopica et Comm.—Geddes, Church History of Ethiopia, p. 120 .- Le Grand, Dissertation de la Conversion des Abyssins, which is to be found in the second volume of the Voyage Historique d' Abyssinie du R. P. Jerome Lobo, p. 13.—La Croze, Histoire du Christianisme en Ethiopie, livr. ii. p. 90.

[i] Franc. Sachini Histor. Societat. Jesu, part II. lib. v. Euseb. Renaud. Historia Patriarchar. Alexandrin. p. 611.-Ilist. de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom. iii. p. 314.

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compliments [k]. It is however true, that, to-c E N T. wards the conclusion of this century, and during SECT.III. the pontificate of CLEMENT VIII. an embassy PARTI. from another patriarch of Alexandria, whose name was also Gabriel, appeared at Rome, and was considered as a subject of triumph and boasting by the creatures of the pope [1]. But the more candid and sensible, even among the Roman Catholics, looked upon this embassy, and not without reason, as a stratagem of the Jesuits, to persuade the Abyssinians (who were so prone to follow the example of their brethren of Alexandria) to join themselves to the communion of Rome, and to submit to the authority and jurisdiction of its pontif [m]. It is at least certain, that, after this solemn embassy, we do not find in the records of history the smallest token of a propensity in the Copts to embrace the doctrine or discipline of Rome.

Many years before this period, a considerable sect of the Armenians had been accustomed to treat the Roman pontif with particular marks of N 2 veneration

the council of *Trent* in order to get rid of the importunity of these Jesuits; but he refused positively the sending any of his young students to be educated among their order, and declared plainly, that he owed no obedience nor submission to the bishop of *Rome*, who had no more dignity nor authority than any other bishop, except within the bounds of his own diocese. See Histoire des Religieux de la Campagn. de Jesus, tom. ii. p. 322.

[/] The transactions of this embassy, adorned with an ample and pompous preface, are subjoined to the sixth volume of the Annal. Ecc.. of Baronius, p. 707. edit. Antwerp.

[m] Renaudot, in his Hist. Patriarch. Alexandrin. p. 611. 612. endeavours to maintain the credit and importance of the embassy, of which Baronius has given such a pompous account. He is, however, much mistaken when he asserts, that father Simon, relying upon the falacious testimony of George Douza, was the only person that ever considered this Cabassy as a stratagem; since it is evident, that Thomas a Jesu, in the sixth book of his treatise De Conversione omnium gentium procuranda, has considered it in the same light, as well as several other writers. See Geddes, Church-History of Ethiopia, p. 231, 232.

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CENT. veneration and respect, without departing, how-SECT. III. ever, from the religious doctrine, discipline, or PARTI worship of their ancestors. Of this a farther account shall be given in the History of the Eastern Churches; it may nevertheless, be proper to observe here, that the attachment of this sect to the bishop of Rome was greatly increased, and the votaries of the pontif considerably multiplied, by the zeal of Zerapion, an opulent man, who was entirely devoted to the court of Rome, and who, by engaging himself to discharge the debts under which the Armenians groaned, obtained, in the year 1593, the title and dignity of Patriarch, though there were already two patriarchs at the head of the Armenian church. He did not, however, enjoy this dignity long; for, soon after his promotion, he was sent into exile by the Persian monarch, at the desire of those Armenians who adhered to the ecclesiastical discipline of their ancestors; and thus the boasting and exultation of the Romans subsided all of a sudden, and their hopes vanished [n].

Nestorians and lodians.

VII. The ambitious views of the Roman pontifs sowed the pestilential seeds of animosity and discord among all the eastern churches; and the Nestorian Christians, who are also known by the denomination of Chaldeans, felt early the effects of their imperious councils. In the year 1551, a warm dispute arose among that people about the creation of a new patriarch, Simeon Barma-MAS being proposed by one party, and SULAKA earnestly desired by the other. The latter, to support his pretensions the more effectually, repaired to Rome, and was consecrated patriarch, in the year 1553, by Pope Julius III. whose jurisdiction he had acknowledged, and to whose commands he had promised unlimited submission<sup>\*</sup> and obedience. Julius gave the name John to the

<sup>[</sup>n] The Nouveaux Mémoires des Missions de la Compagnie de Jesu dans le Levant, tom. iii. p. 132, 133.

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the new Chaldean patriarch, and, upon his return CENT.

to his own country, sent with him several perSECT.III.

sons, skilled in the Syriac language, to assist him PART!

in establishing and extending the papal empire

among the Nestorians. From this time that un
happy people were divided into two factions, and
were often involved in the greatest dangers and
difficulties by the jarring sentiments and perpetual quarrels of their patriarchs [o].

The Nestorians, or, as they are more commonly called, the Christians of St Thomas, who inhabited the maritime coasts of India, suffered much from the methods employed by the Portuguese to engage them to embrace the doctrine and discipline of the church of Rome, and to abandon the religion of their ancestors, which was much more simple, and infinitely less absurd [p]. The finishing stroke was put to the violence and brutality of these attempts by Don Alexis De Menezes, bishop of Goa, who, about the conclusion of this century, calling the Jesuits to his assistance, obliged this unhappy and reluctant people to embrace the religion of Rome, and to acknowledge the pope's supreme jurisdiction; against both of

N 3 VIII. The [o] Jos. Sim. Assemanni Bibliotheca Oriental. Clementino-Vaticana, tom. iii. part II. p. 164.—See the History of the

which acts they had always expressed the utmost

abhorrence. These violent counsels and arrogant

proceedings of Menezes, and his associates, were

condemned by such of the Roman-catholics as were

most remarkable for their equity and wisdom [q.]

Eastern church, in the following chapter of this history.

[P] For an account of the doctrines and worship of these, and the other eastern Christians, see the following Chapter:—
As also two learned books of Monsieur La Croze, the one entitled, Histoire du Christianisme des Indes; and the other, Histoire du Christianisme en Ethiopie.

[q] See La Croze Histoire du Christianisme aux Indes, livr. ii. p. 88. &c. in which there is an ample account of the Christians of St Thomas, and of the rough methods employed by Menezes to gain them over to the church of Rome.

CENT. VIII. The greatest part of the first legates and SECT.III. missionaries of the court of Rome treated with much PARTH. severity and injustice the Christians whom they were desirous of gaining over to their communion. For they did not only require that these Christians should renounce the particular opinions that separated them from the Greek and Latin churches, and that they should acknowledge the Roman pontif as Christ's sole vicegerent upon earth: their demands were still farther; they opposed many of the opinions of this people, some of which were at least worthy of toleration, and others highly agreeable to the dictates both of reason and scripture; they insisted upon the suppression and abolition of several customs, rites, and institutions, which had been handed down to them from their ancestors, and which were perfectly innocent in their nature and tendency; in a word, they would by satisfied with nothing less than an entire and minute conformity of the religious rites and opinions of this people, with the doctrine and worship of the church of Rome. The papal court, however, rendered wise by experience, perceived at length that this manner of proceeding was highly imprudent, and every way improper to extend the limits of the papal empirement It was therefore determined to treat in the East. with more artifice and moderation a matter of such moment and importance, and the missionaries were, consequently, ordered to change the plan of their operations, and confine their views t the two following points: to wit, the subjection of the Roman in these Christians to the jurisdiction of the Roman in pontif, and their renouncing, or at least professing to renounce, the opinions that had been condemned in the general councils of the church. Ir all other matters, the Roman envoys were cominanded to use a perfect toleration, and to ler =t these people remain unmolested in following the sentiments s,

entiments, and observing the institutions, they CENT. had derived from their ancestors. To give the SECT.III, greater credit and plausibility to this new method PARTI. of conversion, certain learned doctors of the church endeavoured to demonstrate, that the religious tenets of Rome, when explained according to the simplicity of truth, and not by the subtilties, and definitions of the schools, differed very little from the opinions received in the Greek and the other eastern churches. But this demonstration was very far from being satisfactory, and it discovered less of an ingenious spirit, than a disposition to gain proselytes by all sorts of means, and at all Be that as it may, the cause of Rome received much more advantage from this plan of moderation, than it had derived from the severity of its former counsels; though much less than the authors of this reconciling plan fondly expected.

IX. While the Roman pontifs were using their The interutmost efforts to extend their dominion abroad, nal constithey did not neglect the means that were proper the church On the of Rome strengthto strengthen and maintain it at home. contrary, from the dawn of the Reformation, ened in vathey began to redouble their diligence in defend-rious ways. ing the internal form and constitution of the church of Rome against the dexterity and force of its adversaries. They could no more have recourse to the expedient of crusades, by which they had so often diminished the power and influence of their enemies. The revolutions that had happened in the affairs of Rome, and in the state of Europe, rendered any such method of subduing heretics ·visionary and impracticable. Other methods were, therefore, to be found out, and all the resources of prudence were to be exhausted in support of a declining church. Hence the laws and procedures of the inquisition were revised and corrected in those countries, where that formidable court is permitted to exert its dreadful power. Colleges,

N 4

CENT. Colleges, and schools of learning were erected in

SECT. III. various places, in which the studious youth wen PART I trained up, by perpetual exercise, in the art o disputing, that thus they might wield, with mor dexterity and success, the arms of controvers against the enemies of Rome. The circulation c such books as were supposed to have a perniciou tendency, was either entirely prevented, or a least much obstructed, by certain lists, or indexe composed by men of learning and sagacity, an published by authority, in which these book were marked with a note of infamy, and their per usal prohibited, though with certain restriction The pursuit of knowledge was earnestly recon mended to the clergy, and honourable marks ( distinction, as well as ample rewards, were be stowed on those who made the most remarkabl progress in the cultivation of letters. And, t enlarge no farther on this head, the youth, in ge neral, were more carefully instructed in the prin ciples and precepts of their religion, than the had formerly been. Thus it happens, that signs advantages are frequently derived from what as looked upon as the greatest evils, and much wis dom and improvement are daily acquired in th school of opposition and adversity. It is mor than probable, that the church of Rome woul never have been enriched with the acquisition we have now been mentioning, had it continue in that state of uninterrupted ease and undispute authority that nourish a spirit of indolence an luxury; and had not the pretended heretics at tacked its territories, trampled upon its jurisdic tion, and eclipsed a great part of its ancient me jesty and splendour.

Ignatius Loycla the founder of the order called Jesuita

X. The Monastic orders and religious societie have been always considered by the Roman pontil as the principal support of their authority and do It is chiefly by them that they rule th minion. church

church, maintain their influence on the minds of c E N T. the people, and augment the number of their vo-XVI.
taries. And, indeed, various causes contribute PARTL to render the connexion between the pontif and these religious communities much more intimate, than that which subsists between him and the other clergy, of whatever rank or order we may suppose them to be. It was therefore judged necessary, when the success of LUTHER, and the progress of the Reformation, had effaced such a considerable part of the majesty of Rome, to found some new religious fraternity, that should, in a particular manner, be devoted to the interests of the Roman pontif, and the very express end of whose institution should be to renew the vigour of a declining hierarchy, to heal the deep wound it had received, to preserve those parts of the papal dominions that remained yet entire, and to augment them by new accessions. This was so much the more necessary, as the two famous Mendicant societies [r], by whose ministry the popes had chiefly governed during many ages, and that with the greatest success and glory, had now lost, on several accounts, a considerable part of their influence and autho-Tity, and were thereby less capable of serving the Eburch with efficacy and vigour than they had formerly been. What the pontif sought for, in this declining state of his affairs, was found in that mous and most powerful society, which, derivg its title from the name of Jesus, were commonly called Jesuits, while they were stiled by heirenemies Loyalites, and sometimes Inighists [s], From the Spanish name of their founder [t]. This founder

<sup>[</sup>r] These two orders were the Franciscans and the Do-

<sup>[</sup>s] The Spanish name of the founder of the order of Jewits was Don Inigo de Guipuscoa.

<sup>[1]</sup> The writers who have given the most particular and circumstantial accounts of the order of the Jesuits, are enumerated by Christoph. Aug. Salin. in his Historia August. Confessions, tom. ii. p. 73.

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CENT founder was Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish knight, Sect. III. who, from an illiterate soldier, became an unpa-PARTI ralleled fanatic; a fanatic, indeed, of a fertile and enterprising genius [u], who, after having passed through various scenes of life, came to Rome, and, being there directed by the prudent counsels of persons much wiser than himself, was rendered capable of instituting such an order as the state of the church at that time essentially re-

The nature

Jesuits.

quired [w].

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XI. The Jesuits hold a middle rank between of the order and institute the monks and the secular clerks, and with respect tion of the to the nature of their institute, approach nearer to the regular canons than to any other order. For

though

[u] Many Jesuits have written the life of this extraordinary man; but the greatest part of these biographers seem more intent upon advancing the glory of their founder, than solicitous about the truth and fidelity of their relations; and hence the most common events, and the most trivial actions that concern Ignatius, are converted into prodigies and miracles. The history of this enterprising fanatic has been composed with equal truth and ingenuity, though seasoned with a very large portion of wit and pleasantry, by a French writer, who calls himself Herculus Rasiel de Selve \*. This work, which is divided into two volumes, is entitled, Histoire de l'admirable Don Inigo de Guipuscoa, Chevalier de la Vierge, et fondateur de la Monorchie des Inighistes, and it has passed already through two editions at the Hague.

[w] Not only the Protestants, but also a great number of the more learned and judicious Roman Catholics, have unanimously denied, that Ignatius Loyola had either learning sufficient to compose the writings of which he is said to be the author, or genius enough to form the society of which he is considered as They maintain, on the contrary, that he was no more than a flexible instrument in the hands of able and ingenious men, who made use of his fortitude and fanaticism to answer their purposes; and that persons much more learned than he, were employed to compose the writings which bear his name. See Geddes, Miscellaneous Tracts, vol. iii. p. 429.—The greatest part of his works are supposed to have proceeded from the pen of his secretary John de

\* This is a feigned name; the real author was Monsieur Le Vier, an ingenious bookseller, who lived formerly at the Hague.

though they resemble the monks in this, that they C E N T. live separate from the multitude, and are bound S ric T. IIL by certain religious vows, yet they are exempt PARTI. from stated hours of worship, and other numerous and burthensome services, that lie heavy upon the Monastic orders, that they may have more time to employ in the education of youth, in directing the consciences of the faithful, in edifying the church by their pious and learned productions, and in transacting other matters that relate to the prosperity of the papal hierarchy. Their whole order is divided into three classes. The first com-Prehends the professed members, who live in what are called the professed houses; the second contains the scholars, who instruct the youth in the colleses; and to the third belong the novices, who live in the houses of probation [x]. The professed members, besides the three ordinary vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience, that are common to all the Monastic tribes, are obliged to take a fourth, by which they solemnly bind themselves to go without deliberation or delay wherever the pope shall Dink fit to send them; they are also a kind of Mendicants, being without any fixed subsistence, and Living upon the liberality of pious and well disposed people. The other Jesuits, and more particularly

Palanco; see La Croze, Histoire du Christianisme en Echiope, D. 55. 271. The Benedictines assirm, that his book of Spiritule Leureuses is copied from the work of a Spanish Benedictine monk, whose name was Cisneros (see La Vie de M. de la Croze par Jordan) and the constitutions of the Society were probably the work of Lainez and Salmeron, two learned men who were among its first members. See Ilistoire des Reitzieux de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom. i. p. 115.

Spiritual and Temporal Co-adjutors, who assist the professed members, and perform the same functions, without being bound by any more than the three simple vows; though, after a long and approved exercise of their employment, the Spiritual Co-adjutors are admitted to the fourth vow, and thus become profes-

sed members.

CENT. larly the scholars, are possessed of large revenues.

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SECT. III. and are obliged, in case of urgent necessity, to PARTI contribute to the support of the professed members. These latter, who are few in number (considering the multitudes that belong to the other classes), are generally speaking, men of prudence and learning, deeply skilled in the affairs of the world, and dexterous in transacting all kinds of business from long experience, added to their natural penetration and sagacity; in a word, they are the true and perfect Jesuits. The rest have, indeed, the title, but are rather the companions and assistants of the Jesuits, than real members of that mysterious order; and it is only in a very vague and general sense, that the denomination of Jesuits can be applied to them. But, what is still more remarkable, the secrets of the society are not revealed even to all the professed members. It is only a small number of this class, whom old age has enriched with thorough experience, and long trial

declared worthy of such an important trust, that

The zeal: of the Jesuits for the interests of the Roman pontif.

are instructed in the mysteries of the order. . XII. The church and court of Rome, since the remarkable period when so many kingdoms and provinces withdrew from their jurisdiction, have derived more influence and support from the labours of this single order, than from all their other emissaries and ministers, and all the various exertions of their power and opulence. It was this famous company, which, spreading itself with an astonishing rapidity through the greatest part of the habitable world, confirmed the wavering nations in the faith of Rome, restrained the progress of the rising sects, gained over a prodigious number of Pagans in the most barbarous and remote parts of the globe to the profession of popery, and attacked the pretended heretics of all denominations; appearing almost alone in the field of controversy, sustaining with fortitude and resolution

resolution the whole burthen of this religious CENT. war, and surpassing, by far, the champions of an-XVI. tiquity, both in the subtilty of their reasonings PARTI. and the eloquence of their discourses. Nor is this all; for by the affected softness and complying spirit that reigns in their conversation and manners, by their consummate skill and prudence in civil transactions, by their acquaintance with the arts and sciences, and a variety of other qualities and accomplishments, they insinuated themxives into the peculiar favour and protection of statesmen, persons of the first distinction, and even of crowned heads. Nor did any thing contribute more to give them that ascendency they have universally acquired, than the cunning and dexterity with which they relaxed and modified their system of morality, accommodating it artfully to the propensities of mankind, and depriving it, on certain occasions, of that severity, that rendered it burthensome to the sensual and voluptuous. By this they supplanted, in the palaces of the great, and in the courts of princes, the Dominicans and other rigid doctors, who had formerly held there the tribunal of confession and the direction of consciences, and engrossed to themselves and exclusive and irresistible influence in those retreats of royal grandeur, from whence issue the counsels that govern mankind [y]. An order of Promote the interests of the court of Rome; and this, indeed, was its great end, and the leadg purpose which it never lost sight of; employing

<sup>[3]</sup> Before the order of Jesuits was instituted, the Dominicans alone directed the consciences of all the European kings and princes. And it was by the Jesuits that the Dominicans are deprived of a privilege so precious to spiritual ambition. See Peyrat, Antiquités de la Chapelle de France, livr. i. p. 322.

#### The History of the Roman or Latin Church.

CENT.ing every where its utmost vigilance and art to XVI.

SECT.III. support the authority of the Roman pontifs, and PARTI. to save them from the contempt, of which they must have been naturally apprehensive, in consequence of a revolution that opened the eyes of

a great part of mankind.

All these circumstances placed the order of Jesuits in a conspicuous point of light. Their capacity, their influence, and their zeal for the papacy, had a very advantageous retrospect upon themselves, as it swelled the sources of their opulence, and procured to their society an uncommon, and indeed an excessive degree of veneration and respect. But it is also true, that these signal honours, and advantages exposed them, at the same time, to the envy of other religious orders; that their enemies multiplied from day to day; and that they were often involved in the greatest perplexities and perils. Monks, courtiers, civil magistrates, public schools, united their efforts to crush this rising fabric of ambition and policy; and a prodigious number of books were published to prove, that nothing could be more detrimental to the interests of religion, and the well-being of society, than the institution of the In France, Poland, and other countries, they were declared public enemies of their country, traitors and parricides, and were even banished with ignominy [2]. But the prudence, or rather the cunning and artifice, of the disciples of Loyola, calmed this storm of opposition, and, by gentle and imperceptible methods, restored the credit and authority of their order, delivered it from the perils with which it had been threatened, and even put

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<sup>[\*]</sup> See the Histoire des Religieux de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom iii. passim.—Boulay, Hist. Academ. Paris. tom. vi. p. 559-648, et passim.—As well as almost all the writers who have given accounts of the sixteenth century.

put it in a state of defence against the future at-CENT.

\*\*TVI.\*\*

XIII. The pontifs of this century that ruled PARTI.

the church after the decease of ALEXANDER VI. Roman

were Pope Pius III. Julius II. [b], Leo X. pontifs.

ADRIAN

The character and spirit of the Jesuits were admirably described, and their transactions and fate foretold, with a sagacity almost prophetic, so early as the year 1551, in a sermon preached in Christ Church, Dublin, by Dr George Brown, bishop of that see; a copy of which was given to Sir James Ware, and may be found in the Harleian Miscellany (vol. v. p. 566.) The remarkable passage that relates to the Jesuits is as follows: "But there are a new fraternity of late sprung up, who call themselves Jesuits, which will deceive many, who are much after the Scribes and Pharisees' manner. Amongst the Jews " they shall strive to abolish the truth, and shall come very near to do it. For these sorts will turn themselves into several forms; with the heathens a heathenist, with the Atheists An Atheist, with the Jews a Jew, with the Reformers a Reformade, purposely to know your intentions, your minds, your hearts, and your inclinations, and thereby bring you at last to be like the fool that said in his heart There was no God. These shall spread over the whole world, shall be admitted into the councils of princes, and they never the wiser; charming of them, yea, making your princes reveal their hearts and the secrets therein, and yet they not perceive it; which will happen from falling from the law of God, by neglect of fulfilling the law of God, and by winking at their sins; yet in the end, God, to justify his law shall suddenly cut off this society, even by the hands of those who have most succoured them, and made use of them; so 44 that, at the end, they shall become odious to all nations. They shall be worse than Jews, having no resting place upon earth, and then shall a Jew have more favour than a Jesuit." -This singular passage, I had almost said prediction, seems to be accomplished in part, by the present suppression of the Jesuits in France, (I write this note in the year 1762); and by the universal indignation which the perfidious stratagems, ini-Quitous avarice, and ambitious views of that society, have excited among all the orders of the French nation, from the throne to the cottage.

(a very singular model for a Christian pontif,) that this pope, whose name was Rovere, assumed the denomination of Julius II. It may be indeed said, that Caesar was sovereign pontif (portifical maximus), and that the pope of Rome enjoyed the same dignity though with some change in the title.

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XVI. have been already taken notice of; Clement VII:

PARTI of the house of Medicis,—Paul III. of the illustrious family of Farnese [c], Julius III. [d];

whose name was John Maria Giocci,—Marcellus II.—Paul IV. [e], whose name, before his

[c] The sentiments and character of Paul III. have given rise to much debate, even in our time, especially between the late Cardinal Quirini, and Keisling, Schelhorn, and some other writers. The cardinal has used his utmost efforts to defend the probity and merit of this pontif; while the two learned men above-mentioned represent him as a perfidious politician, whose predominant qualities were dissimulation and fraud. See Quirinus, De gessis Pauli III. Farnesii Brixia, 1745, in 4to. Among the res gestæ of Paul III. were two bastards, whose offspring, Farnese and Sforza, were made cardinals in their infancy. See Keislingii Epist. de gestis Pauli III. Schelhorn. Americates Hist. Eccles. et Liter. But the licentious exploits of this pope do not end here. He was reproached, in a book published before his death under the name of Ochino, with having poisoned his mother and his nephew, with having ravished a young virgin at Ancona, with an incestuous and adulterous commerce with his daughter Constantia, who died of poison administered by the pope, to prevent any interruption in his odious amours. It is said, in the same book, that being eaught in bed with his niece Laura Farnese, who was the wife of Nic- Ouercei, he received from this incensed husband a stab of a dagger, of which he bore the marks to his death. See Skeidan, Comment. de Statu Relig. et Republicæ, Carolo Quinto Cæsare, lib. zzi. p. 667. edit. Argentor.

in the papal chair, when he bestowed the cardinal's hat on the keeper of his monkeys, a boy chosen from among the lowest of the populace, and who was also the infamous object of his unnatural pleasures. See Thuan. lib. vi. & xv.—Hoffing. Histor. lib. Eccl. tom. v. p. 572.—and more especially Sleidan, Histor. lib. xxi. Folio, m. 609.—When Julius was reproached by the cardinals for introducing such an unworthy member into the sacred college, a person who had neither learning, nor virtue, nor merit of any kind, he impudently replied by asking them, "What virtue or merit they had found in him, that could induce them

to place him (Julius) in the papal chair?"

[e] Nothing could exceed the arrogance and ambition of this violent and impetuous pontif, as appears from his treatment

his elevation to the potificate, was John Peter Ca-C E N T. raffa,—Pius IV. who was ambitious of being look-s ret. III. ed upon as a branch of the house of Medicis, and PART ! who had been known, before his promotion, by the name of John Angeli de Medicis,—Pius V. a Dominican, called Michael Ghisleri, a man of an austere and melancholy turn of mind, by which, and other similar qualities, he obtained a place in the kalendar,—Gregory XIII. who was known previously by the name of Hugo Buoncompagno [f], -Sixtus V. otherwise named Felix Peretti di Montalto, who, in pride, magnificence, intrepidity, and strength of mind, and in other great virtues and vices, surpassed by far all his predecessors,—Urban VIII. Gregory XIV. Innocent IX. the shortness of whose reigns prevented them from acquiring reputation, or falling into reproach.

Among these pontifs there were better and worse [g]; but they were all men of exemplary characters,

treatment of Queen Elizabeth. See Burnet's History of the Reformation:—It was he who, by a bull, pretended to raise Ireland to the privilege and quality of an independent kingdom; and it was he also who first instituted the Index of prohibited books, mentioned above, sect. IX.

[f] See Jo. Petr. Mussei Annales Gregorii XIII. Rom.

1742, in 4to.

[g] Pius V. and Sixtus V. made a much greater figure in the annals of fame, than the other pontifs here mentioned; the former on account of his excessive severity against heretics, and the famous bull In Cæna Domini, which is read pub-Ricly at Rome every year on the Festival of the Holy Sucraament; and the latter, in consequence of many services rendered to the church, and numberless attempts, carried on with spirit, fortitude, generosity, and perseverance, to promote its glory, and maintain its authority. - Several modern writers employed their pens in describing the life and actions of Pius V. so soon as they saw him canonised, in the year 1712, by Clement XI. Of his bull, entitled, In Caena Domini, and the tumults it occasioned, there is an ample account in Giannone's -Histoire Civile de Naples, tom. iv. p. 248. The life of Sixtus V. has been written by Gregory Leti, and translated into se-Vol. IV.

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CENT characters, when compared with the greatest part S t c T. III. of those who governed the church before the Re-The number of adversaries, both PART I formation. foreign and domestic, that arose to set limits to the despotism of Rome, and to call in question the authority and jurisdiction of its pontif, rendered the college of cardinals, and the Roman nobility more cautious and circumspect in the choice of a spiritual ruler; nor did they almost dare, in these critical circumstances of opposition and danger, to entrust such an important dignity to any ecclesiastic, whose bare-faced licentiousness, frontless arrogance, or inconsiderate youth, might render him peculiarly obnoxious to reproach, and furnish thereby new matter of censure to their adversaries. It is also worthy of observation, that from this period of opposition, occasioned by the ministry of the Reformers, the Roman pontifs have never pretended to such an exclusive authority, as they had formerly usurped; nor could they, indeed, make good such pretensions, were they so extravagant as to avow them. They claim, therefore, no longer a power of deciding, by their single authority, matters of the highest moment and importance; but, for the most part, pronounce according to the sentiments that prevail in the college of cardinals, and in the different congregations, which are intrusted with their respective parts in the government of the church. Nor do they any more venture to foment divisions in sovereign states, to arm subjects against their rulers, or to level the thunder of their excommunications at the heads of princes. All such proceedings, which were formerly so frequent at the court of Rome, have been prudently suspended since the gradual

> veral languages; it is however a very indifferent work, and the relations it contains are, in many places, inaccurate and unfaithful.

gradual decline of that ignorance and superstition CRNT. XVI. that prescribed a blind obedience to the pontif. SECT. III. and the new degrees of power and authority that PARTI. monarchs and other civil rulers have gained by the revolutions that have shaken the papal throne.

XIV. That part of the body of the clergy, that The state of is more peculiarly devoted to the Roman pontifs, the clergy. seemed to have undergone no visible change during this century. As to the bishops, it is certain that they made several zealous attempts, and some even in the council of Trent, for the recovery of the ancient rights and privileges, of which they had been forcibly deprived by the popes. They were even persuaded that the pope might be lawfully obliged to acknowledge, that the episcopal dignity was of divine original, and that the bishops received their authority immediately from Christ himself [b]. But all these attempts were successfully opposed by the artifice and dexterity of the court of Rome, which never ceases to propagate and enforce this despotic maxim: "That the bishops are no more than the legates " or ministers of Christ's vicar; and that the au-"thority they exercise is entirely derived from " the munificence and favour of the apostolic see:" a maxim, however, that several bishops, and more especially those of France, treat with little Some advantages, however, and those not inconsiderable, were obtained for the clergy at the expence of the pontifs; for those reservations, provisions, exemptions, and expectatives (as they are termed by the Roman lawyers), which before the Reformation had excited such heavy and bitter complaints throughout all Europe, and exhibited the clearest proofs of papal avarice and tyranny, were now almost totally suppressed.

O 2 XV. Among

<sup>[1]</sup> See Paol. Sarpi's History of the Council of Trent.

The lives

CENT. XV. Among the subjects of deliberation in the SECT. III. council of Trent, the reformation of the lives and PART I manners of the clergy, and the suppression of the scandalous vices that had too long reigned in and morals that order, were not forgot; nay, several wise and prudent laws were enacted with a view to that important object. But those who had the cause of virtue at heart, complained (and the reason of these complaints still subsists) that these laws were no more than feeble precepts, without any avenging arm to maintain their authority; and that \_\_\_ they were transgressed, with impunity, by the clergy of all ranks, and particularly by those who filled the highest stations and dignities of the church. In reality, if we cast our eyes upon the Romish clergy, even in the present time, these complaints will appear as well founded now,\_\_\_\_ as they were in the sixteenth century. In Germany\_ as is notorious to daily observation, the bishops\_\_\_\_, if we except their habit, their title, and a few ceremonies that distinguish them, have nothing in-fice. In other countries, a great part of the episcopal order, unmolested by the remonstrances or reproofs of the Roman pontif, pass their day= amidst the pleasures and cabals of courts, and appear rather the slaves of temporal princes, thank the servants of Him whose kingdom is not of this world. They court glory; they aspire after riches, while very few employ their time and la bours in edifying their people, or in promoting among them the vital spirit of practical religion and substantial virtue. Nay, what is still more deplorable, those bishops, who, sensible of the sanctity of their character and the duties of their office, distinguish themselves by their zeal in the cause of virtue and good morals, are frequently exposed to the malicious efforts of envy, oftenloaded with false accusations, and involved in per-CENT.

plexities of various kinds. It may, indeed, be stot. III.

partly owing to the example they have received, PARTI.

and still too often receive, from the heads of the church, that so many of the bishops live dissolved in the arms of luxury, or toiling in the service of ambition. Many of them, perhaps, would have been more attentive to their vocation, and more exemplary in their manners, had they not been corrupted by the models exhibited to them by the bishops of Rome, and had constantly before their eyes a splendid succession of popes and cardinals, remarkable only for their luxury and avarice, their arrogance and vindictive spirit, their voluptuousness and vanity.

That part of the clergy that go under the denomination of canons, continue, almost every where, their ancient course of life, and consume, in a manner far remote from piety and virtue, the treasures which the religious zeal, and liberality of their ancestors, had consecrated to the uses of the

church and the relief of the poor.

It must not, however, be imagined, that all the other orders of the clergy are at liberty to follow such corrupt models, or, indeed, that their inclinations and reigning habits tend towards such a loose and voluptuous manner of living. For it is certain, that the Reformation had a manifest influence even upon the Roman-Catholic clergy, by rendering them, at least, more circumspect and cautious in their external conduct, that they might be thus less obnoxious to the censures of their adversaries; and it is accordingly well known, that since that period the clergy of the inferior orders have been more attentive to the rules of outward decency, and have given less offence by open and scandalous vices and excesses, than they had formerly done.

О 3

XVI. The

CENT. orders reformed.

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XVI. The same observation holds good with SECT. III. respect to the Monastic orders. There are, in-PART I deed, several things, worthy of the severest animadversion, chargeable upon many of the heads The ancient and rulers of these societies; nor are these societies themselves entirely exempt from that laziness, intemperance, ignorance, artifice, discord, and voluptuousness, that were formerly the common and reigning vices in the Monastic retreats. It would be nevertheless an instance of great partiality and injustice to deny, that in many countries the manner of living, among these religious orders, has been considerably reformed, severe rules employed to restrain licentiousness and much pains taken to conceal, at least, any vestiges of ancient corruption and irregularity that may yet remain. In some places, the austerity of the ancient rules of discipline, which had been so shamefully relaxed, was restored by several zealous patrons of Monastic devotion; while others, animated with the same zeal, instituted new communities, in order to promote, as they piously imagined, a spirit of religion, and thus to contribute to the well-being of the church.

Of this latter number was Matthew de Bassi, a native of Italy, the extent of whose capacity was much inferior to the goodness of his intentions, and who was a Franciscan of the more rigid class [i], who were zealous in observing rigorously the primitive rules of their institution. honest enthusiast seriously persuaded himself, that he

is [i] The dispute that arose among the Franciscans by Innocent IV's relaxing so far their institute as to allow of property and possessions in their community, produced a division of the order into two classes, of which the most considerable who adopted the papal relaxation, were denominated Conventuals, and the other, who rejected it, Brethren of the Obser-The latter professed to observe and follow rigorously the primitive laws and institute of their founder.

he was divinely inspired with the zeal that im-CENT. pelled him to restore the original and genuines et. III. rules of the Franciscan order to their primitive PART 1. austerity; and, looking upon this violent and irresistible impulse as a celestial commission, attended with sufficient authority, he set himself to this work of Monastic reformation with the most de--vout assiduity and ardour [k]. His enterprize was honoured, in the year 1525. with the solemn approbation of Clement VII. and this was the origin of the order of Capuchins. The vows of this order implied the greatest contempt of the world and its enjoyments, and the most profound humility, accompanied with the most austere and sullen gravity of external aspect [1]; and its reputation and success excited, in the other Franciscans, the most bitter feelings of indignation and envy [m]. The Capuchins were so called from the sharp-pointed Capuche, or Cowl [n], which they added to the ordinary Franciscan habit, and 04 which

preceding note, had degenerated, in process of time, from their primitive self-denial; and hence the reforming spirit, that animated Bassi.

[1] See Luc. Waddingi Annales Ordinis Minorum, tom. xvi. p. 207, 257. edit. Roman.—Helyot, Histoire des Ordres Monastiques, tom. vii. ch. xxiv. p. 264.—And, above all, Zach. Boverii Annales Capuchinorum.

Franciscans, was the innovation made in their habit by the Capuchins. Whatever was the cause of their choier, true it is, that their provincial persecuted the new monks, and obliged them to fly from place to place, until they at last took refuge in the palace of the Duke of Camerino, by whose credit they were received under the obedience of the Conventuals, in the quality of hermits minors, in the year 1527. The next year the pope approved this union, and confirmed to them the privilege of wearing the square capuche; and thus the order was established in 1528.

Geddes attributes the erection and denomination of this order to one Francis Puchine.

CENT. which is supposed to have been used by St Fran-

SECT. III. cis himself, as a covering for his head [0].

Another branch of the Franciscan order formed a new community, under the denomination of Recollets in France, Reformed Franciscans in Italy, and Bare-footed Franciscans in Spain, and were erected into a separate order, with their respective laws and rules of discipline, in the year 1532, by the authority of Clement VII. They differ from the other Franciscans in this only, that they profess to follow, with greater zeal and exactness, the austere institute of their common founder and chief; and hence also they were called Friars Minors of the strict observance [p].

St Theresa, a Spanish lady of an illustrious family, undertook the difficult task of reforming the Carmelite order [q], which had departed much from its primitive sanctity, and of restoring its neglected and violated laws to their original credit and authority. Her associate, in this ard ous attempt, was Johannes de Santa Crusaand her enterprize was not wholly destitute of success, notwithstanding the opposition she met with from the greatest part of the Carmelites. Hen the order was, during the space of ten years, vided into two branches, of which one followed milder rule of discipline, while the other er braced an institute of the most severe and se denying kind [r]. But, as these different rules life among the members of the same communi were a perpetual source of animosity and discor-

of

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<sup>[</sup>o] See Du Fresne Giossarium Latinitat. medii ævi, tom. p. 298. edit. Benedict.

<sup>[</sup>p] See Waddingi Annales, tom. xvi. p. 167.—Hely Histoire des Ordres Monast. tom. vii. ch. xviii. p. 129.

<sup>[9]</sup> Otherwise called the White Fryars.

<sup>[</sup>r] The former, who were the Carmelites of the ancie observance, were called the moderate or mitigated; which the latter, who were of the strict observance, were disti guished by the denomination of bare-footed Carmelites.

the more austere, or bare-footed Carmelites, were C E N T. separated from the others, and formed into a dissection tinct body, in the year 1580, by Gregory Xill. PART I. at the particular desire of Philip II. king of Spain. This separation was confirmed, in the year 1587, by Sixtus V. and completed, in 1593. by Clement VIII. who allowed the bare footed Carmelites to have their own chief, or general. But, after having withdrawn themselves from the others, these austere friars quarrelled among themselves, and in a few years their dissensions grew to an intolerable height; hence they were divided anew, by the pontif last mentioned, into two communities, each of which were governed by their respect general [s].

XVII. The most eminent of all the new orders New mothat were instituted in this century, was, beyond nastic orall doubt, that of the Jesuits, which we have already had occasion to mention, in speaking of the chief pillars of the church of Rome, and the principal supports of the declining authority of its

dable society, all the other religious orders appear inconsiderable and obscure. The Reformation, among the other changes which it occasioned, even in the Roman church, by exciting the circumspection and emulation of those who still remained addicted to popery, gave size to various communities, which were all comprehended under the general denomination of Paraller Clarks.

pontifs: Compared with this aspiring and formi-

der the general denomination of Regular Clerks. And as all these communities were, according to their own solemn declarations, formed with a design of imitating that sanctity of manners, and re-

viving that spirit of piety and virtue, that had distinguished the sacred order in the primitive times; this was a plain, though tacit confession of the

present corruption of the clergy, and consequent-

<sup>[1]</sup> Helyot, Hissoire des Ordres, tom. i. ch. xlvii. p. 340.

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CENT. ly of the indispensable necessity of the Reforma-SECT. III. tion.

The first society of these regular clerks was formed in the year 1524, under the denomination of I heatins, which they derived from their principal founder John Peter Carassa (then bishop of Theate, or Chicti, in the kingdom of Naples, and afterwards pope, under the title of Paul IV.), who was assasinated in this pious undertaking by Cajetan, or Gaetan, and other devout associates. These monks, being by their vows destitute of all possessions and revenues, and even secluded from the resource of begging, subsist entirely upon the voluntary liberality of pious persons. They are called by their profession and institute to revive a spirit of devotion, to purify and reform the eloquence of the pulpit, to assist the sick and the dying by their spiritual instructions and counsels, and to combat heretics of all denominations with zeal and assiduity [t]. There are also some female convents established under the rule and title of this order.

The establishment of the Theatins was followed by that of the Regular Clerks of St Paul, so called from their having chosen that apostle for their patron; though they are more commonly known under the denomination of Barnabites, from the church of St Barnabas, at Milan, which was bestowed upon them in the year 1545. This order, which was approved by Clement VII. and confirmed about three years after by Paul III. was originally founded by Antonio Mavia Zacharias of Gremona, and Bartholomew Ferrari, and Jacob. Ant. Morigia, noblemen of Milan. Its members were at first obliged to live after the manner of the Theatins, renouncing all worldly goods and possessions, and depending upon the spontaneous

<sup>[1]</sup> Helyot, ibid. tom. iv. ch. xii. p. 71.

spontaneous donations of the liberal for their CENT.

daily subsistence. But they grew soon weary of SECT. III.

this precarious method of living from hand to PART L

mouth, and therefore took the liberty, in process

of time, of securing to their community certain possessions and stated revenues. Their

principal function is to go from place to place,
like the apostles, in order to convert sinners, and

bring back transgressors into the paths of repentance and obedience [u].

The Regular Clerks of St Maieul, who are also called the fathers of Somasquo, from the place where their community was first established, and which was also the residence of their founder, were erected into a distinct society by Jerome Æmiliani, a noble Venetian, and were afterwards successively confirmed, in the years 1540 and 1563. by the Roman pontifs Paul III. and Pius IV. [w]. Their chief occupation was to instruct the ignorant, and particularly young persons, in the principles and precepts of the Christian religion, and to procure assistance for those that were reduced to the unhappy condition of orphans. The same important ministry was committed to the Fathers of the Christian doctrine in France and Italy. The order that bore this title in France was instituted by Cæsar de Bus, and confirmed, in the year 1597, by Clement VIII. while that which is known in Italy under the same denomination, derives its origin from Mark Cusani. a Milanese knight, and was established by the approbation and authority of Pius V. and Gregory

XVIII. It

XIII.

<sup>[</sup>u] Helyot, loc. cit. tom. iv. ch. xvi. p. 100.—In the same part of this incomparable work, this learned author gives a most accurate, ample, and interesting account of the other religious orders, which are here, for brevity's sake, but barely mentioned.

<sup>. [</sup>w] Acta Sanctor. Februar. tom. ii. p. 217.

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CENT. Other new religious communitics.

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XVIII. It would be an endless, and, indeed, an SECT. III. unprofitable labour to enumerate particularly that PART I prodigious multitude of less considerable orders and religious associations, that were instituted in Germany and other countries, from an apprehension of the pretended heretics, who disturbed by their innovations the peace, or rather the lethargy, of the church. For certainly no age produced such a swarm of monks, and such a number of convents, as that in which Luther and the other reformers opposed the divine light and power of the gospel to ignorance, superstition, and papal tyranny. We therefore pass over in silence these less important establishments, of which many have been long buried in oblivion, because they were erected on unstable foundations, while numbers have been suppressed by the wisdom of certain pontifs, who have considered the multitude of these communities rather as prejudicial than advantageous to the church. Nor can we take particular notice of the female convents, or nunneries, among which the Ursulines shine forth with a superior lustre both in point of number and dignity. The Priests of the Oratory, founded in Italy by Philip Neri, a native of Florence, and, publicly honoured with the protection of Gregory XIII. in the year 1577, must, however, be excepted from this general silence, on account of the eminent figure they have made in the republic of letters. It was this community that produced Baronius, Raynaldus, and Laderchius, who hold so high a rank among the ecclesiastical historians of the sixteenth and following centuries; and there are still to be found in it men of considerable erudition and capacity. The name of this religious society was derived from an apartment, accommodated in the form of an Orato-

## CHAP. I. The History of the Roman or Latin Church.

ry [x], or cabinet for devotion, which St Philip C E N.T. Neri built at Florence for himself, and in which, SECT. III. for many years, he held spiritual conferences with PART I.

his more intimate companions [y].

XIX. It is too evident to admit of the least dis-The state of pute, that all kinds of erudition, whether sacred learning. or profane, were held in much higher esteem in the western world since the time of Luther, than they had been before that auspicious period. The Jesuits, more especially, boast, and perhaps not without reason, that their society contributed more, at least in this century, to the culture of the languages, the improvement of the arts, and the advancement of true science, than all the rest of the religious orders. It is certain, that the schools and academies, either through indolence or design, persisted obstinately in their ancient method of teaching, though that method was intricate and disagreeable in many respects; nor would they suffer themselves to be better informed, or permit the least change in their uncouth and disgusting systems. The monks were not more remarkable for their docility than the schools; nor did they seem at all disposed to admit into the retreats of their gloomy cloisters, a more solid and elegant method of instruction than they had been formerly accustomed to. These facts furnish a rational account of the surprising variety that appears in the style and manner of the writers of this age, of whom several express their sentiments with elegance, perspicuity, and order, while the diction of a great part of their contemporaries

<sup>[</sup>x] Helyot, Hist. des Ordres, &c. tom. viii, ch. iv. p. 12. He was peculiarly assisted in these conferences by Baronius, author of the Ecclesiastical Annals, who also succeeded him as general of the order, and whose annals, on account of his imperfect knowledge of the Greek language, are so remarkably full of gross faults, misrepresentations, and blunders.

CENT poraries is barbarous, perplexed, obscure, and

SECT. III. insipid.

Cæsar Baronius, already mentioned, undertook to throw light on the history of religion by his annals of the Christian church; but this pretended light was scarcely any thing better than perplexity and darkness [z]. His example, however, excited many to enterprizes of the same nature. The attempts of the persons they called heretics, rendered indeed such enterprises necessary: for these heretics, with the learned Flackius and Chemnitz at their head [a], demonstrated with the utmost evidence, that not only the declarations of holy scripture, but also the testimony of ancient history and the records of the primitive church, were in direct opposition both to the doctrines and pretensions of the church of Rome. This was wounding popery with its own arms, and attacking it in its pretended strong holds. It was, therefore, incumbent upon the friends of Rome to employ, while it was time, their most zealous efforts in maintaining the credit of those ancient fables, on which the greatest part of the papal authority reposed, as its only foundation and support.

The state of XX. Several men of genius in France and Italy, who have been already mentioned with the esteem that is due to their valuable labours [b], used their

[a] The former in the Conturie Magdeburgenses; the 1.

ter in his Examen Concilii Tridentini.

[6] See above, Sect. H. VIII. and IX.

<sup>[2]</sup> The learned Isaac Casaubon undertook a refutation of the Annals of Baronius, in an excellent work, entitled, Exercitationes, &c. and though he carried it no farther down that the 34th year of the Christian æra, yet he pointed out a prodigious number of palpable, and (many of them) shameful errors, into which the Romish annalists has fallen during that short space. Even the Roman Catholic literati acknowledge the inaccuracies and faults of Baronius; hence many learned men, such as Pagi, Noris, and Tillemont, have been employed to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them. And accordingly, a few years ago, a need to correct them.

## CHAP. I. The History of the Roman or Latin Church.

Elleir most zealous endeavours to reform the bar-CENT. barous philosophy of the times. But the excession. III. sive attachment of the scholastic doctors to the PART L Aristotelian philosophy on the one hand, and, on the other, the timorous prudence of many weak minds, who were apprehensive that the liberty of striking out new discoveries and ways of thinking might be prejudicial to the church, and open a new source of division and discord, crushed all these generous endeavours, and rendered them ineffectual. The throne of the subtile Stagirite remained therefore unshaken; and his philosophy, whose very obscurity afforded a certain gloomy kind of pleasure, and flattered the pride of those who were implicitly supposed to understand it, reigned unrivalled in the schools and monasteries. It even acquired new credit and authority from the Jesuits, who taught it in their colleges, and made use of it in their writings and disputes. this, however, these artful ecclesiastics shewed evidently, that the captious jargon and subtilties of that intricate philosophy were much more adapted to puzzle heretics, and to give the popish doctors at least the appearance of carrying on the controversy with success, than the plain and obvious method of disputing, which is pointed out by the genuine and unbiassed dictates of right reason.

XXI. The church of Rome produced, in this Theological virtual writers cal writers. The most eminent of these, both in point of the Roman pertof a reputation and merit, are as follow: Thomas sussion. de Vio, otherwise named Cardinal Cajetan,—Eckius,—Cochlæus,—Emser,—Surius,—Hosius,—Faber,—Sadolet,—Pighius,—Vatable,—Canus,—D'Espence,—Caranza—-Maldonat,—Turrianus,—Arias Montanus,—Catharinus,—Reginald Pole,—Sixtus Senensis,—Cassan-

C. E. N. T. der,—Paya d'Andrada,—Baius,—Pamelius, and XVI.
SECT. III. others [c].

PART! XXII. The religion of Rome, which the pon-The princi- tifs are so desirous of imposing upon the faith of ples of the all that bear the Christian name, is derived, ac-Roman Ca-tholic faith. cording to the unanimous accounts of its doctors, from two sources, the written word of God, and the unwritten; or, in other words, from scripture But as the most eminent divines of and tradition. that church are far from being agreed concerning the person or persons who are authorised to interpret the declarations of these two oracles, and to determine their sense; so it may be asserted, with truth, that there is, as yet, no possibility of knowing with certainty what are the real doctrines of the church of Rome, nor where, in that communion, the judge of religious controversies is to be found. It is true, in the court of Rome, and all those, who favour the despotic pretensions of its pontif, maintain, that he alone, who governs the church as Christ's vicegerent, is entitled to explain and determine the sense of scripture and tradition in matters pertaining to salvation, and that, of consequence, a devout and unlimited obedience is due to his decisions. To give weight to this opinion, Pius IV. formed the plan of a council, which was afterwards instituted and confirmed by Sixtus V. and called the Congregation for interpreting the decrees of the Council of Trent, This congregation was authorised to examine and decide, in the name of the pope, all matters of small moment relating to ecclesiastical discipline, while every debate of any consequence, and particularly all disquisitions concerning points of faith and doctrine, were left to the decision of the pontif alone,

<sup>[</sup>c] For an ample account of the literary character, rank, and writings of these learned men, and of several others whose names are here omitted, see Louis Ell. Du Pin, Dibliotheque des Auteurs Ecclesiastique, tom. xiv. and xvi.

# CHAR. I. The History of the Roman or Latin Church.

sione as the great oracle of the church [d]. But C = N T. not withstanding all this, it was impossible to per-Szch. III. suade the wiser part of the Roman-catholic body PART L to acknowledge this exclusive authority in their head. And accordingly, the greatest part of the Gallican church, and a considerable number of very learned men of the popish religion in other countries, think very differently from the court of Rome on this subject. They maintain, that all bishops and doctors have a right to consult the sacred fountains of scripture and tradition, and to draw from thence the rules of faith and manners for themselves and their flock; and that all difficult points and debates of consequence are to be referred to the cognizance and decision of general councils. Such is the difference of opinion (with respect to the determination of doctrine and controversies) that still divides the church of Rome; and as no judge has been, nor perhaps can be, found to compose it, we may therefore reasonably despair of seeing the religion of Rome acquire a permanent, stable, and determined form.

XXIII. The council of Trent was assembled, The council as was pretended, to correct, illustrate, and fix of Trent with perspicuity, the doctrine of the church, to restore the vigour of its discipline, and to reform the lives of its ministers. But in the opinion of those who examine things with impartiality, this assembly, instead of reforming ancient abuses, rather gave rise to new enormities; and many transactions of this council have excited the just complaints of the wisest men in both communions.

Vol. IV.

P

They

[4] See Aymoe, Tableau de la Cour de Rome, part V. ch. iv. p. 282. Et Hence it was, that the approbation of Innocent XI. was refused to the artful and insidious work of Bosesuet, bishop of Meaux, entitled, 'An Exposition of the Doctrine of the Catholic Church,' until the author had suppressed entirely the first edition of that work, and made corrections and alterations in the second.

CENT. They complain that many of the opinions of the SECT. III, scholastic doctors on intricate points (that had PART I formerly been left undecided, and had been wisely permitted as subjects of free debate) were, by this council, absurdly adopted as articles of faith, and recommended as such, nay imposed, with violence, upon the consciences of the people, under pain of excommunication. They complain of the ambiguity that reigns in the decrees and declarations of that council, by which the disputes and dissensions that had formerly rent the church. instead of being removed by clear definitions and wise and charitable decisions, were rendered, on the contrary, more perplexed and intricate, and were, in reality, propagated and multiplied instead of being suppressed or diminished. Nor were these the only reasons of complaint; for it must have been afflicting to those that had the cause of true religion and Christian liberty at heart, to see all things decided, in that assembly, according to the despotic will of the Roman pontif, without any regard to the dictates of truth, of the authority of scripture, its genuine and authentic source, and to see the assembled fathers reduced to silence by the Roman legates, and deprived, by these insolent representatives of the papacy, of that influence and credit, that might have rendered them capable of healing the wounds of the church. It was moreover a grievance justly to be complained of, that the few wise and pious regulations, that were made in that council, were never supported by the authority of the church, but were suffered to degenerate into a mere lifeless form, shadow of law, which was treated with indifference, and transgressed with impunity. To sum up all in one word, the most candid and impartial observers

of things consider the council of Trent as an

assembly that was more attentive to what might

maintain the despotic authority of the pontif,

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than solicitous about entering into the measures CENT. That were necessary to promote the good of the SECT. HILL church. It will not therefore appear surprising, PART Lithat there are certain doctors of the Romish church, who, instead of submitting to the decision of the council of Trent as an ultimate rule of faith, maintain, on the contrary, that these decisions are to be explained by the dictates of scripture and the language of tradition. Nor, when all these things were duly considered, shall we have reason to wonder, that this council has not throughout the same degree of credit and authority, even in those countries that profess the Roman catholic religion [s].

Some countries, indeed, such as Germany, Poland, and Italy, have adopted implicitly and absolutely the decrees of this council, without the smallest restriction of any kind. But in other places it has been received and acknowledged on certain conditions, which modify not a little its pretended authority. Among these latter we may reckon the Spanish dominions, which disputed, during many years, the authority of this council, and acknowledged it at length only so far as it could be adopted without any prejudice to the rights and prerogatives of the kings of Spain [f]. In other countries, such as France [g] and Hungary [b], it never has been solemnly received, or publicly

<sup>[</sup>b] The translator has here inserted in the text the note [b] of the original, and has thrown the citations it contains into different notes:

<sup>[</sup>f] See Giannone, Histoire Civile du Royaume de Naples, tom. iv. p. 235.

<sup>[</sup>g] See Hect. Godofr. Masii Diss. de Contempta Concilis Tridentini in Galiia, which is published among his other dissertations, collected into one volume. See also the excellent discourse which Dr Courrayer has subjoined to the second volume of his Frenca translation of Paul Sarpi's History of the Council of Trent, entitled, "Discours our la Reception du Concile de Trente, particulté ement en France," p. 775, 789.

[b] See Lorandi Samuel of, Vita Andr. Duaithis, p. 56.

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C F. N T. publicly acknowledged. It is true, indeed, that. NVI.

SECT. III. in the former of these kingdoms, those decrees of PART I Trent that relate to points of religious doctrine. have, tucitly and imperceptibly, through the power of custom, acquired the force and authority of a rule of faith; but those which regard external discipline, spiritual power, and ecclesiastical government, have been constantly rejected, both in a public and private manner, as inconsistent with the authority and prerogatives of the throne, and prejudicial to the rights and liberties of the Gallican church [i].

The princiligion.

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XXIV. Notwithstanding all this, such as are . pal heads of desirous of forming some notion of the religion of Catholie re-Rome, will do well to consult the decrees of the council of Trent, together with the compendions confession of faith, which was drawn up by the order of Pius IV. Those, however, who expect to derive, from these sources, a clear, complete and perfect knowledge of the Romish faith, will be greatly disappointed. To evince the truth of this assertion, it might be observed, as has been already hinted, that both in the decrees of Trent and in this papal confession, many things are expressed in a vague and ambiguous manner, and that designedly, on account of the intestine divisions and warm debates that then reigned in the church. This other singular circumstance might also be added, that several tenets are omitted in both, which no Roman-catholic is allowed to deny, or even to call in question. But, waving both these considerations, let it only be observed, that in these decrees and in this confession several doctrines and rules of worship are inculcated in a much

[i] See Lod. Ell. du Pin, Biblioth. des Auteurs Ecclesiasti-

ques, tom. xv. p. 380.

For what relates to the Literary History of the Council of Trent, the historians who have transmitted accounts of it, and other circumstances of that nature, see Jo. Chr. Kocheri Bibliothecu Theol Symbolica, p. 325, 377. as also Salig's Hisivry of the Council of Trent (in German), p. 193-320.

thuch more rational and decent manner, than that CENT. in which they appear in the daily service of the Sict. III. church, and in the public practice of its mem-PART !. bers [k]. Hence we may conclude, that the justest notion of the doctrine of Rome is not to be derived so much from the terms made use of in the decrees of the council of Trent, as from the real signification of these terms, which must be drawn from the customs, institutions, and observances, that are, evewhere, in use in the Romish church. Add to all this, another consideration, which is, that in the bulls issued out from the papal throne in these latter times, certain doctrines, which were obscurely proposed in the council of Trent, have been explained with sufficient perspicuity, and avowed without either hesitation or reserve. Of this Clement XI. gave a notorious example, in the famous ball called Unigenitus, which was an enterprize as audacious as it proved unsuccessful.

markable detriment their authority had suffered the logy, or from the auccurate interpretations of the holy scripture-scriptures that had been given by the learned, and knowledge, the perusal of these divine oracles, which was now grown more common among the people, they left no methods unemployed that might discouting the culture of this most important branch of sacred erudition. While the tide of resentment ran high, they forgot themselves in the most unsecountable manner. They permitted their champions

the canons of the council of Trent, relating to the doctrine of purgatory, the invocation of saints, the worship of images and relicks. The terms employed in these canons are artfull; chosen, so as to avoid the imputation of idolatry, in the philo-phical sense of that word; for in the acripture sense they cannot avoid it, as all use of images in religious worship is expressly forbidden in the sacred writings in many places. But this circumspection does not appear in the worship of the Roman-catholics, which is notoriously idolatrous in both the senses of that word.

GENT. pions to indulge themselves openly in reflections
SECT. III. injurious to the dignity of the sacred writings, PART Land, by an excess of blasphemy almost incredible (if the passions of men did not render them capable of the greatest enormities), to declare publicly, that the edicts of the pontifs, and the records of oral tradition, were superior, in point of authority, to the express language of the holy scriptures. But as it was impossible to bring the sacred writings wholly into disrepute, they took the most effectual methods in their power to render them obscure and useless. For this purpose the ancient Latin translation of the Bible, commonly called the Vulgate, though it abounds with innumerable gross errors, and, in a great number of places, exhibits the most shocking harbarity of style, and the most impenetrable obscurity with respect to the sense of the inspired writers, was declared, by a solemn decree of the council of Trent, an authentic, i. e. faithful, accurate, and perfect [/] translation, and was consequently recommended as a production

> IF [1] If we consult the canons of the council of Trent, we show find that the word authentic is there explained in terms Ics positive and offensive than those used by Dr Mosheim. Nor is it strictly true, that the Vulgate was declared by this council as a production beyond the reach of criticism or censure; since, as we learn from Fra. Paolo, it was determined. that this Version should ne corrected, and a new edition of it published by persons appointed for that purpose . There was, indeed, something highly ridiculous in the proceedings of the council in relation to this point; for, if the natural order of things had been observed, the revisal and correction of the Vulgate would have preceded the pompous approbation with which the council honoured, and, as it were, consecrated that ancient Version. For how, with any shadow of good sense. could the assembled fathers set the seal of their approbation to a work which they acknowledged to stand in need of correction, and that before they knew whether or not the correction would answer their views, and merit their approbation?

> See Fra. Paolo Sarpi's History of the Council of Trent, book II. part I. II. and Dr Courrayer's French translation of this History, vol. i. p. 2844 pate (29)

preduction beyond the reach of criticism or cens CENT. It was easy to foresee that such a declaration see T. III. was every way adapted to keep the people in igno-PARTE stance, and to veil from their understandings the true meaning of the sacred writings. In the same council, farther steps were taken to execute, with zuccess, the designs of Rome. A severe and intolerable law was enacted, with respect to all interpreters and expositors of the scriptures, by which they were forbidden to explain the sense of these divine books, in matters relating to faith and practice, in such a manner as to make them speak a different language from that of the church and the ancient doctors [m]. The same law farther declared, that the church alone (i e. its ruler, the Roman pontif) had the right of determining the true meaning and eignification of scripture. fill up the measure of these tyrannical and iniauitous proceedings, the church of Rome persisted obstinately in affirming, though not always with the same impudence and plainness of speech, that the holy scriptures were not composed for the use of the multitude, but only for that of their spiritual seachers; and, of consequence, ordered these divine records to be taken from the people in all places where it was allowed to execute its imperious commands [n].

XXVI. These circumstances had a visible in-Commentafluence upon the spirit and productions of the tors and excommentators and expositors of scripture, which the holy the example of Luther and his followers had scriptures.

P 4 rendered

to such interpretations as were not designed for public view.

"Etiamsi hujusmodi interpretationes nullo unquam tempore"

in lucem edendæ forent." Sessio, 4to, tit. cap: ii.

order in all countries that acknowledged the jurisdiction of the church of Rome. The French and some other nations have the Bible in their mother tongue, in which they peruse it; though much against the will of the creatures of the pape.

CENT. rendered, through emulation, extremely nume. SECT. III. rous. The popish doctors, who vied with the PART I protestants in this branch of sacred erudition, were insipid, timorous, servilely attached to the glory and interests of the court of Rome, and discovered, in their explications, all the marks and slavish dependence and constraint. They seem to have been in constant terror lest any expression should escape from their pen that savoured o opinions different from what were commonly re ceived; they appeal, every moment, to the de clarations and authority of the holy fathers, a they usually stile them; nor do they appear t have so much consulted the real doctrines taugh by the sacred writers, as the language and senti ments which the church of Rome has taken th liberty to put into their mouths. Several these commentators rack their imaginations is order to force out of each passage of scriptur the four kinds of significations, called Literal Allegorical, Tropological and Anagogical, which ig norance and superstition had first invented, an afterwards held so sacred, in the explication of th inspired writings. Nor was their attachment 1 this manner of interpretation so ill-managed, sins it enabled them to make the sacred writers spes the language that was favourable to the views the church, and to draw out of the Bible, was the help of a little subtilty, whatever doctris they had a mind to impose upon the credula of the multitude.

sides these miserable commentators that dishonothe church of Rome, there were some in its communion, who had wisdom enough to despise the senseless methods of interpretation, and who avoiding all mysterious significations and fanciation followed the plain, natural, and literal sense the expression used in the holy scriptures. In the classical sense the expression used in the holy scriptures.

class the most eminent were Erasmus of Rotterdam, O E'N To who translated into Latin, with an elegant and secretar. Suithful simplicity, the books of the New Testa PARTA ment, and explained them with judgement in a pharaphrase which is deservedly esteemed; Cardimal Cajetan, who disputed with Luther at Augsburg; and who gave a brief, but judicious exposition of almost all the books of the Old and New Testal ment; Francis Titelman, Isidorus Clarius, John Maldonat, Benedict Justinian, who acquired no mean reputation by their commentaries on the Epistles of St Paul. To these may be added Gaigny, De'Espence, and other Expositors [0]. But these eminent men, whose example was so adapted to excite emulation, had almost no followers; and, in a short space of time, their influence was gone, and their labours were forgot. For, towards the conclusion of this century, Edmund Richer, that strenuous opposer of the encroachments made by the pontifs on the liberties of the Gallican church, was the only doctor in the university of Paris who followed the literal sense and the plain and natural signification of the words of scripture; while all the other commentators and interpreters, imitating the pernicious example of several ancient expositors, were always racking their brains for mysterious and sublime significations, where none such were, nor could be, designed by the sacred writers [p].

XXVII. The seminaries of learning were filled, The state of before the reformation, with that subtile kind of didactic theological doctors, commonly known under the denomination of schoolmen; so that even at Paris, which was considered as the principal seat of sacred erudition, no doctors were to be found who were capable of disputing with the protestant divines in

[p] See Baillet, Vie d'Edmund Richer, p. 9, 10.

<sup>[</sup>o] See Simon, Hist. Critique du Vieux et de Nouv. Testa-

GENT. the method they generally pursued, which was that SECT. IIL of proving the doctrines they maintained by argu-PART I ments drawn from the Holy Scriptures and the writings of the fathers. This uncommon scarcity of didactic and scriptural divines produced much confusion and perplexity, on many occasions, even in the council of Trent; where the scholastic doctors fatigued some, and almost turned the heads of others, by examining and explaining the doctrines that were there proposed, according to the intricate and ambiguous rules of their captious philosophy. Hence it became absolutely necessary to reform the methods of proceeding in theological disquisitions, and to restore to its former credit that which drew the truths of religion more from the dictates of the sacred writings, and from the sentiments of the ancient doctors, than from the uncertain suggestions of human reason, and the ingenious conjectures of philosophy [q]. It was, however,

> [q] See Du Boulay's account of the Reformation of the Theological Faculty, or College at Paris, in his Hist. Acad. Paris. tom. vi. p. 790. In this reform, the Batchelors of Divinity, called Sententiarii and Biblici, are particularly distinguished; and (what is extremely remarkable) the Augustine monks, who were Luther's fraternity, are ordered to furnish the college of divinity once a year with a scriptural Batchelog (Baccalaureum Biblicum præsentare); from whence we may conclude, that the monks of the Augustine order, to which Luther belonged, were much more conversant in the study of the Holy Scriptures than the other Monastic societies. But this academical law deserves to be quoted here at length, and that so much the more, as du Boulay's History is in few hands. It is as follows: "Augustinenses quolibet anno Biblicum præsentabunt, secundum statuum fol. 21. quod sequitur: Quilibet ordo Mendicantium et Collegium S. Bernardi habeat quolibet anno Biblicum qui legat ordinarie, alioqui priventur Baccalaureo sententiario." It appears by this law, that each of the Mendicant orders was, by a decree of the Theological Faculty, obliged to furnish, yearly, a scriptural Batchelor (such was Luther); and yet we see, that in the Reformation. already mentioned, this obligation is imposed upon none but the Augustine monks; from which it is natural to conclude, that.

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however, impossible to deprive entirely the scho-CENT. lastic divines of the ascendant they had acquired Suct. III.
in the seminaries of learning, and had so long PART L maintained almost without opposition. Nay, after having been threatened with a diminution of their authority, they seemed to resume new vigour from the time that the Jesuits adopted their philosophy, and made use of their subtile dialectic, as a more effectual armour against the attacks of the heretics, than either the language of scripture, or the authority of the fathers. And, indeed, this intricate jurgon of the schools was every way proper to answer the purposes of a set of men, who found it necessary to puzzle and perplex, where they could neither refute with perspicuity, nor prove with evidence. Thus they artfully concealed their defeat, and retreated, in the dazzled eyes of the multitude, with the appearance of victory [r].

The Mystics lost almost all their credit in the church of Rome after the Reformation; and that, partly on account of the favourable reception they found among the Protestants, and partly in consequence of their pacific system, which, giving them an aversion to controversy in general, rendered them little disposed to defend the papal cause against its numerous and formidable adversaries. These enthusiasts however were, in some measure, tolerated in the church of Rome, and allowed to indulge themselves in their philosophical speculations, on certain conditions, which obliged them to abstain from censuring either the laws or the corruptions of the church, and from declaiming, with

that the Dominicans, Franciscans, and the other Mendicants, had entirely neglected the study of the Scriptures, and consequently had among them no scriptural Batchelors; and that the Augustine monks alone were in a condition to satisfy the demands of the Theological Faculty.

this paragraph, to illustrate more fully the sense of the author.

# The History of the Roman or Latin Church:

CKNT with their usual freedom and vehemence, against Sect. III. the vanity of external worship, and the dissensions PART I of jarring and contentious doctors.

The state of

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morality

XXVIII. There was no successful attempt made, in this century, to correct or improve the and practi-cal religion. practical or moral system of doctrine that was followed in the church of Rome; nor, indeed, could any make such an attempt without drawing upoh him the displeasure, and perhaps the fury, of the papal hierarchy. For, in reality, such a project of reformation seemed in no wise conducive to the interests of the church, as these interests were understood by its ambitious and rapacious rulers. And it is undoubtedly certain, that many doctrines and regulations, on which the power, opulence, and grandeur of that church essentially depended; would have run the risk of falling into discredit and contempt, if the pure and rational system of morality, contained in the gospel, had been exhibited in its native beauty and simplicity, to the view and perusal of all Christians without distinction. Little or no zeal was therefore exerted in amending or improving the doctrines that immediately relate to practice. On the contrary, many persons of eminent piety and integrity, in the communion of Rome, have grievously complained (with what justice shall be shewn in its proper place [s]), that, as soon as the Jesuits had gained an ascendant in the courts of princes and in the schools of learning, the cause of virtue began visibly to decline. It has been alleged, more particularly, that this artful order employed all the force of their subtile distinctions to sap the foundations of morality, and, in process of time opened a door to all sorts of licentiousness and iniquity, by the loose and dissolute rules of conduct they propagated as far as their influence extended.

<sup>[</sup>s] See Cent. XVII. Sect. II. Part I. Chap. I. Sect. XXXIV.

extended. This poisonous doctrine spread, indeed, CRNT. XVI.

its contagion, in a latenr manner, during the six-set. UL

teenth century; but, in the following age, its abet-PART L

tors ventured to expose some specimens of its tur
pitude to public view, and thus gave occasion to

great commotions in several parts of Europe.

All the moral writers of the Romish church, in this century, may be distinguished into three classes, the Schoolmen, the Dogmatists [t], and the Mystics. The first explained, or rather obscured, the virtues and duties of the Christian life, by knotty distinctions, and unintelligible forms of speech, and buried them under an enormous load of arguments and demonstrations. The second illustrated them from the declarations of scripture, and the opinions of the ancient doctors. While the third placed the whole of morality in the tranquillity of a mind withdrawn from all sensible objects, and habitually employed in the contemplation of the divine nature.

XXIX. The number of combatants that the The state pontifs brought into the field of controversy, dur- of religious ing this century, was prodigious, and their glaring versy. defects are abundantly known. It may be said, with truth, of the most of them, that, like many. warriors of another class, they generally lost sight of all considerations, except those of victory and The disputants, which the order of Jesuits sent forth in great number against the adversaries of the church of Rome, surpassed all the rest in subtilty, impudence, and invective. But the chief leader and champion of the polemic tribe was Robert Bellarmine, a Jesuit, and one of the college of cardinals, who treated, in several bulky volumes, of all the controversies that subsisted

of these three classes that is given by Dr Mosheim, that the word Dogmatist must not be taken in that magistreial sense which it bears in modern language.

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CENT. sisted between the protestants and the church of SECT. III. Rome, and whose merit as a writer consisted, prinness of argument, which shewed a rich and fruitful imagination. This eminent defender of the church of Rome arose about the conclusion of this century; and, on his first appearance, all the force and attacks of the most illustrious protestant doctors were turned against him alone. His candour and plain-dealing exposed him, however, to the censures of several divines of his own communion; for he collected, with diligence, the reasons and objections of his adversaries, and proposed them, for the most part, in their full force, with integrity and exactness. Had he been less remarkable on account of his fidelity and industry; had he taken care to select the weakest arguments of his antagonists, and to render them still weaker, by proposing them in an imperfect and unfaithful light, his fame would have been much greater among the friends of Rome than it actually

Thecontrol divide the ehurch of Rome.

is [u].

XXX. If we turn our view to the internal state version that of the church of Rome, and considered the respective sentiments, opinions, and manners of its different members, we shall find that, notwithstanding its boasted unity of faith, and its ostentatious pretensions to harmony and concord, fit was, in this century, and is, at this day, divided and distracted with dissensions and contests of various kinds. The Franciscans and the Dominicans contend with vehemence about several points of doctrine and discipline. The Scotists and Thomists are at eternal war. The bishops have never ceased disputing with the pontif (and the congregations that he has instituted to maintain his pretensions) concerning the

<sup>[</sup>u] See Jo. Frid. Mayeri Ecloga de fide Baronii et Bellarmini ipsis pontificiis dubia, published at Amsterdam in 8vo, in 1698.

the origin and limits of his authority and jurisdic-CENT. tion. The French and Flemings, together with SECT. III. other countries, openly oppose the Roman pontif? A = T. on many occasions, and refuse to acknowledge his supreme and unlimited dominion in the church; while, on the other hand, he still continues to encroach upon their privileges, sometimes with violence and resolution, when he can do so with impunity, at other times with circumspection and prudence, when vigorous measures appear dangerrous or unnecessary. The Jesuits, who, from their first rise, had formed the project of diminishing the credit and influence of all the other religious orclers, used their warmest endeavours to share with the Benedictines and other monasteries, which were richly endowed, a part of their opulence; and their endeavours were crowned with success. Thus they drew upon their society the indignation and vengeance of the other religious communities, and armed against it the monks of every other denomination; and, in a more especial manner, the Benedictines and Dominicans, who surpassed all its enemies in the keenness and bitterness of their resentment. The rage of the Benedictines is animated by a painful reflection on the possession of which they had been deprived; while the Dominicans contend for the honour of their order, the privileges annexed to it, and the religious tenets by which it is distinguished. Nor are the theological colleges and seminaries of learning more exempt from the flame of controversy than the clerical and monastic orders; on the contrary, debates concerning almost all the doctrines of Christianity are multiplied in them beyond number, and conducted with little moderation. It is true, indeed, that all these tempered and managed, by the are prudence and authority of the Roman pontifs, in such a manner as to prevent their being carried to

ENT. an excessive height, to a length that might prove XVI.

SECT. III. fatal to the church, by destroying that phantom PART I of external unity that is the source of its consistence as an ecclesiastical body. I say tempered and managed; for to heal entirely these divisions, and calm these animosities, however it may be judged an undertaking worthy of one who calls himself the Vicar of Christ, is nevertheless, a word beyond the power, and contrary to the intention, of the Roman pontif.

The more momentous controversies that have divided the church of Rome.

XXXI. Besides these debates of inferior moment, which made only a slight breach in the tranquillity and union of the church of Romes there arose, after the period in which the council of Trent was assembled, controversies of much greater importance, which deservedly attracted the attention of Christians of all denominations. These controversies were set on foot by the Jesuits, and from small beginnings have increased gradually, and gathered strength; so that the flame they produced has been transmitted even to our times, and continues, at this very day, to divide the members of the Romish church in a manner that does not a little endanger its stability. While the Roman pontifs foment, perhaps, instead of endeavouring to extinguish, the less momentous disputes mentioned above, they observe a different conduct with respect to those now under co sideration. The most zealous efforts of artifice and authority are constantly employed to calm the contending parties (since it appears impossible unite and reconcile them), and to diminish violence of commotion, which they can scarce ever hope entirely to suppress. Their effort however have hitherto been, and still continue They have not been able to ca I be, inesfectual. the agitation and vehemence with which these 🗷 🗲 bates are carried on, nor to inspire any sentime of moderation and mutual forbearance into min whi =

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which are less animated by the love of truth, than CENT.

XVI.

SECT. III.

XXXII. Whoever looks with attention and PART I. impartiality into these controversies will easily per-Two geneceive, that there are two parties in the Roman ral classes of church, whose notions with respect both to doctors in the church doctrine and discipline are extremely different. of Rome. The Jesuits, in general, considered as a body [w], maintain, with the greatest zeal and obstinacy. the ancient system of doctrine and manners, which was universally adopted in the church before the rise of Luther, and which, though absurd and ill-digested, has, nevertheless, been considered as highly favourable to the views of Rome, and the grandeur of its pontifs. These sagacious ecclesiastics, whose peculiar office it is to watch for the security and defence of the papal throne, are fully persuaded that the authority of the pontifs, well as the opulence, poinp, and grandeur of the clergy, depend entirely upon the preservation of the ancient forms of doctrine; and that every project that tends either to remove these forms, or even to correct them, must be, in the highest degree, detrimental to what they call the interests of the church, and gradually bring on its ruin. On the other hand, there are within the pale of the Roman church, especially since the dawn of the Reformation, many pious and well-meaning men, whose eyes have been opened, by the perusal of the inspired and primitive writers, upon the corruptions and defects of the received forms of doctrine and discipline. Comparing the dictates of primitive Christianity with the vulgar system of popery, they have found the latter full of enormities, and have always been desirous of a Reforma-VOL. IV. tion

[w] The Jesuits are here taken in the general and collective sense of that denomination; because there are several
individuals of that order, whose sentiments differ f on the a
that generally prevail in their community.

CENT. tion (though indeed a partial one, according to SECT. III. their particular fancies), that thus the church PART I might be purified from those unhappy abuses that have given rise to such fatal divisions, and still draw upon it the censures and reproaches of the heretics.

The main controver-aics that divide the church of Rome, re-

heads. First subiect of de**bate** 

From these opposite ways of thinking, arose naturally the warmest contentions and debates hetween the Jesuits and several doctors of the church of Rome. These debates may be reduced under duced to six the six following heads;

The first subject of debate concerns the limits and extent of the power and jurisdiction of the Roman pontif. The Jesuits, with their numerous tribe of followers and dependents, all maintain, that the pope is infallible;—that he is the only visible source of that universal and unlimited power which Christ has granted to the church; - that bishops and subordinate rulers derive from him alone the authority and jurisdiction with which they are invested; — that he is not bound by any laws of the church, nor by any decrees of the councils that compose it; — and that he alone is the supreme lawgiver of that sacred community. a lawgiver whose edicts and commands it is the highest degree criminal to oppose or disobey. Such are the strange sentiments of the Jesuits; but they are very far from being universally adopted. For other doctors of the church of Rome hold, on the contrary, that the pope is liable to error; — that his authority is inferior to that of a general council;— that he is bound to obey the commands of the church, and its laws, as the are enacted in the councils that represent it; -the these councils have a right to depose him from the papal chair, when he abuses, in a flagrat manner, the dignity and prerogatives with whice he is intrusted; — and that, in consequence these principles, the bishops and other inferi rui 🧲

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tulers and doctors derive the authority that is an-CENT. nexed to their respective dignities, not from the sact. III.

Roman pontif, but from Christ himself.

XXXIII. The extent and prerogatives of the Second subwhereb from the second subject of debate. The Je-ject of dewits and their adherents stretch out its borders far and wide. They comprehend within its large circuit, not only many who live separate from the communion of Rome [x], but even extend the inheritance of eternal salvation to nations that have not the least knowledge of the Christian religion. or of its divine author, and consider as true members of the church open transgressors which profess hs doctrines. But the adversaries of the Jesuits teduce within narrower limits the kingdom of Christ, and not only exclude from all hope of talvation those who are not within the pale of the church of Rome, but also those who, though they live within its external communion, yet dishonour A their profession by a vicious and profligate course of life. The Jesuits, moreover, not to mention other differences of less moment, assert, that the church can never pronounce an erroneous or unjust decision, either relating to matters of fact, points of doctrine [y]; while the adverse party declare.

They were accused at Spoleto, in the year 1653, of having maintained, in their public instructions there, the probability of the salvation of many heretics. See Le Clerc, Bi-

blioth. Univers. et Historique, tom. xiv. p. 320.

I'm [y] This distinction, with respect to the objects of infallibility, was chiefly owing to the following historical circumstance: Pope Innocent X. condemned five propositions, drawn from the famous book of Jansenius, entitled, Augustinus. This condemnation occasioned the two following questions: ist, Whether or no these propositions were erroneous? This was the question de fure, i. c. as the translator has rendered It, the question relating to doctrine. 2d, Whether or no these propositions were really taught by Jansenius? This was the question de facto. i. e. relating to the matter of fact. The church was supposed, by some, infallible only in deciding questions of the former kind.

C F N T declare, that, in judging of matters of fact, it is

XVI.
SECT. III. not secured against all possibility of erring.

The third subject of debate.

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XXXIV. The third class of controversies, that divides the church of Rome, comprehends the debates relating to the nature, efficacy, and necessity of divine grace, together with those that concern original sin, the natural power of man to obey the laws of God, and the nature and foundation of those eternal decrees that have for their object the salvation of men. The Dominicans, Augustins, and Jansenists, with several other doctors of the church, adopt the following propositions: That the impulse of divine grace cannot be opposed or resisted; — that there are no remains of purity or goodness in human nature since its fall; - that the eternal decrees of God, relating to the salvation of men, are neither founded upon, nor attended with, any condition whatsoever; — that God wills the salvation of all mankind; and several other tenets that are connected with these. The Jesuits maintain, on the contrary, that the natural dominion of sin in the human mind, and the hidden corruption it has produced in our internal frame, are less universal and dreadful than they are represented by the doctors now mentioned; — that human nature is far from being deprived of all power of doing good; — that the succours of grace are administered to all mankind in a measure sufficient to lead them to eternal life and salvation: - that the operations of grace offer no violence to the faculties and powers of nature, and therefore may be resisted; - and that God from all eternity has appointed everlasting rewards and punishments, as the portion of men in a future world, not by an absolute, arbritrary, and unconditional decree, but in consequence of that divine and unlimited prescience, by which he foresaw the actions, merits, and charucters of every individual.

XXXV. The

acts

XXXV. The fourth head in this division of the CENT. XVI. controversies that destroy the pretended unity SECT. III. of the church of Rome, contains various subjects PART II of debate, relative to doctrines of morality and rules The fourth of practice, which it would be both tedious and subject of foreign from our purpose to enumerate in a circum-debate. stantial manner; though it may not be improper to touch lightly the first principles of this endless controversy [2].

The Jesuits and their followers have inculcated a very strange doctrine with respect to the motives that determine the moral conduct and actions of men. They represent it as a watter of perfect indifference from what motives men obey the laws of God, provided these laws are really obeyed; and maintain, that the service of those who obey from the fear of punishment is as agreeable to the Deity, as those actions which proceed from a principle of love to him and to his laws. This decision excites the horror of the greatest part of the doctors of the Roman church, who affirm, that no

[2] No author has given a more accurate, precise, and clear enumeration of the objections that have been made to the moral doctrine of the Jesuits, and the reproaches that have been cast on their rules of life; and none at the same time has defended their cause with more art and dexterity than the eloquent and ingenious Gabriel Daniel (a famous member of their order), in a piece, entitled, Entretiens de Cleandre et d'Eudone. This dialogue is to be found in the first volume of his Opuscules, p. 351. and was designed as an answer to the celebrated Provincial letters of Paschal, which did more real prejudice to the society of the Jesuits than can be well imagined, and exposed their loose and perfidious system of morals with the greatest fidelity and perspicuity, embellished by the most exquisite strokes of humour and irony. Father Daniel, in the peace above mentioned, treats with great acuteness the famous doctrine of probability, p. 351; the method of directing our intentions, p. 556; equivocation and mental reservation, p. 562; sins of ignorance and oblivion, p. 719; and it must be acknowledged, that, if the cause of the Jesuits were susceptible of defence or plausibility, it has found in this writer an able and dexterous champion,

ENT. acts of obedience, that do not proceed from the XVI. love of God, can be acceptable to that pure and ART I holy Being. Nor is the doctrine of the Jesuita only chargeable with the corrupt tenets already mentioned. They maintain farther, that a man never sins, properly speaking, but when he transgresseth a divine law, which is fully known to him; which is present to bis mind while he acts, and of. which he understands the true meaning and intent. And they conclude from hence, that, in strict justice, the conduct of that transgressor cannot be looked upon as criminal, who is either ignorant of the law, or is in doubt about its true signification, or loses sight of it, through forgetfulness, at. the time that he violates it. From these properitions they deduce the famous doctrines of probebility and philosophical sin, that have cast an eternal reproach upon the schools of the Jesuits [a]. Their adversaries behold these pernicious tenets with the utmost abhorrence, and assert that neither ignorance, nor forgetfulness of the law, nor the doubts. that may be entertained with respect to its signification, will be admitted as sufficient to justify transgressors before the tribunal of God. contest, about the main and fundamental points of morality, has given rise to a great variety of debates concerning the duties we owe to God, our neighbour,

an opinion or precept may be tollowed with a good conscience; when it is inculcated by four, or three, or two, may even by one doctor of any considerable reputation, even though it be contrary to the judgment of him that follows it, and even of him that recommends it. This doctrine rendered the Jesuits capable of accommodating themselves to all the different passions of men, and to persons of all tempers and characters, from the most austere to the most licentious. Philosophical sin (according to the Jesuits doctrine) is an action, or counter of actions, that is repugnant to the dictates of reason, and year not offensive to the Deity. See a fuller account of these two odious doctrines in the following part of this work, Cent. XVII. Sect. II. Part I Chap. I. Sect. XXXV. and in the author's and translator's notes.

neighbour, and ourselves; and produced two sects C. F. N. T. of moral doctors, whose animosities and divisions S. E. C. T. III. have miserably rent the church of Rome in all PART. parts of the world, and involved it in the greatest perplexities.

XXXVI. The administration of the sacraments, The fifth especially those of penance and the eucharist, forms subject of the fifth subject of controversy in the church of debate. Rome. The Jesuits and many other doctors are of opinion, that the salutary effects of the sacraments are produced by their intrinsic virtue and immediate operation [b] upon the mind at the time they are administered, and that consequently it requires but little preparation to receive them to edification and comfort; nor do they think that God requires a mind adorned with inward purity, and a heart animated with divine love, in order to the obtaining of the ends and purposes of these religious institutions. And hence it is, that according to their doctrine, the priests are empowered to give immediate absolution to all such as conless their transgressions and crimes, and afterwards to admit them to the use of the sacraments. such sentiments are rejected with indignation by all those of the Romish communion who have the Progress of vital and practical religion truly at heart.

This is the only expression that occurred to the translator, as proper to render the true sense of that phrase of the scholastic divines, who say, that the sacraments produce their effect opera operato. The Jesuits and Dominicans maintain that the sacraments have in themselves an instrumental and efficient power, by virtue of which they work in the soul (independently on its previous preparation or propensities) a disposition to receive the divine grace; and this is what is commonly called the opus operatum of the sacraments. Thus, according to their doctrine, neither knowledge, wisdom, humility, faith, nor devotion, are necessary to the efficacy of the meraments, whose victorious energy nothing but a mortal sin can resist. See Dr Courrayer's Translation of Paul Sarpi's History of the Council of Trent, tom. i. livr. ii. p. 423, 424-edit. Amsterdam.

CENT. heart. These look upon it as the duty of the SECT. III. clergy to use the greatest diligence and assiduity s th PART Lin examining the characters, tempers, and actions - i of those who demand absolution and the use of the الخفع sacraments, before they grant their requests; since, in their sense of things, the real benefits of these institutions can extend to those only whose hearts are carefully purged from the corruptions of iniquity, and filled with that divine love that casteth out fear. Hence arose that famous dispute in the church of Rome, concerning a frequent approach to the boly communion, which was carried os with such warmth in the last century, between th Jesuits and the Jansenists, with Arnauld [c] 2 1 the head of the latter, and has been renewed izen our times by the Jesuit Pichon, who thereby incurred the indignation of the greatest part of th French bishops [d]. The frequent celebration  $\subset$ the Lord's supper is one of the main duties, whic the Jesuits recommended with peculiar earnestne to those who are under their spiritual direction representing it as the most certain and infallib method of appeasing the Deity, and obtaining fror him the entire remission of their sins and transgressions. This manner of proceeding the Jans nists censure with their usual severity; and it is also condemned by many other learned and pio doctors of the Romish communion, who reject the intrinsic virtue and efficient operation that is attrbuted to the sacraments, and wisely maintain, the at the receiving the sacrament of the Lord's supper er can be profitable to those only whose minds are prepared, by faith, repentance, and the love of Gofor that solemn service. XXXVII. TH

[c] Arnauld published, on this occasion, his famous beconcerning the Practice of communicating frequently. Thench title is, 'Traité de la frequente Communion.'

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a be

63.

[d] See Journal Universel, tom. xiii. p. 148. tom. xv. p. 3\* tom. xvi. p. 124.

XXXVII. The sixth and last controversy turns C E N T. upon the proper method of instructing Christians SECT. III. in the truths and precepts of religion. One part PART L of the Romish doctors, who have the progress of The sixth religion truly at heart, look upon it as expedient, subject of and even necessary, to sow the seeds of divine debate. truth in the mind, in the tender and flexible state of infancy, when it is most susceptible of good ' impressions, and to give it by degrees, according to the measure of its capacity, a full and accurate knowledge of the doctrines and duties of religion. Others, who have a greater zeal for the interests of the church than the improvement of its members, recommend a devout ignorance to such as submit to their direction, and think a Christian sufficiently instructed when he has learned to yield a blind and unlimited obedience to the orders of the church. The former are of opinion, That nothing can be so profitable and instructive to Christians as the study of the Holy Scriptures, and consequently judge it highly expedient that they should be translated into the vulgar tongue of each country. The latter exclude the people from the satisfaction of consulting the sacred oracles of truth, and look upon all vernacular translations of the Bible as dangerous, and even of a pernicious tendency. They accordingly maintain, that it ought only to be published in ·a learned language, to prevent its instructions from becoming familiar to the multitude. The former compose pious and instructive books to nourish a spirit of devotion in the minds of Christians, to enlighten their ignorance, and dispel, their errors; they illustrate and explain the public prayers and the solemn acts of religion in the language of the people, and exhort all, who attend to their instructions, to peruse constantly these pious productions, in order to improve their knowledge, purify their affections, and

CENT. and to learn the method of worshipping the Deity SECT. III. in a rational and acceptable manner. All this, PART I however, is highly displeasing to the latter kind of doctors, who are always apprehensive, that the blind obedience and implicit submission of the people will diminish in proportion as their views are enlarged, and their knowledge increased [e].

The disputes carricd on with Baius grace, &c.

XXXVIII. All the controversies that have been here mentioned did not break out at the The disputes concerning divine concerning grace, the natural power of man to perform good actions, original sin, and predestination, which have SV

[e] The account here given of the more momentous control --versies that divide the church of Rome, may be confirmed, il- - # = lustrated, and enlarged, by consulting a multitude of books published in the last and present centuries, especially in and France and Flanders, by Jansenists, Dominicans, Jesuite, and Es ex All the productions, in which the doctrine and pre-- cepts of the Jesuits, and the other creatures of the Roman pontif, are opposed and refuted, are enumerated by Dominick Colonia, a French Jesuit, in a work published, in 1735, under === the following title: "Bibliotheque Janseniste, ou Catalogue ==== Alphabetique des principaux livres Jansenistes, ou suspects de 😅 🎉 Jansenisme, avec des notes critiques." This writer is led into many absurdities by his extravagant attachment to the Ro- man pontif, and to the cause and tenets of his order. His book, however, is of use in pointing out the various controversies that perplex and divide the church of Rome. It was condemned by the late Pope Benedict XIV. but was, nevertheless, republished in a new form, with some change in the title, and additions, that swelled it from one octavo volume to four of the same size. This new edition appeared at Antwerp in the year 1752, under the following title: " Dictionnaire des livres Jansenistes, ou qui favorisent le Jansenisme, à Anvres ches J. B. Verdussen." And it must be acknow-ledged, that it is extremely useful, in shewing the intestine divisions of the church, the particular contests that divide its doctors, the religious tenets of the Jesuits, and the numerous productions that relate to the six heads of controversy here mentioned. It must be observed, at the same time, that this work abounds with the most malignant invectives against many persons of eminent learning and piety, and with the most notorious instances of partiality and injustice J.

\$ See a particular account of this learned and scandalous work in the first and second volumes of the "Bibliotheque des Sciences et des Beaux Arts," printed at the Hague.

have been ranged under the third class, were pub-CENT. licity carried on in the century of which we are sect. III. now writing. The others were conducted with PART L more secrecy and reserve, and did not come forth to public view before the following age. Nor will this appear at all surprising to those who consider that the controversies concerning grace and free-will, which had been set in motion by Luther, were neither accurately examined, nor peremptorily decided, in the church of Rome, but were rather artfully suspended and hushed into silence. The sentiments of Luther were indeed condemned; but no fixed and perspicuous rule of faith, with respect to these disputed points, was substituted in their place. The decisions of St Augustin were solemnly approved; but the difference between these decisions and the sentiments of Luther were never clearly explained. The first rise of this fatal controversy was owing to the zeal of Michael Baius, a doctor in the university of Louvain, equally remarkable on account of the warmth of his piety and the extent of his learning. This eminent divine, like the Other followers of Augustin, had an invincible aversion to that contentious, subtile, and intricate manner of teaching theology, that had long pre-Vailed in the schools; and under the auspicious name of that famous prelate, who was his darling guide, he had the courage or temerity to condenin and censure, in an open and public manner, the tenets commonly received in the church of Rome, in relation to the natural powers of man, and the merit of good works. This bold step drew upon Baius the indignation of some of his academical colleagues, and the heavy censures of several Franciscan monks. Whether the Jesuits immediately joined in this opposition, and may be reckoned among the first accusers of Baius, is a matter unknown, or, at most, uncertain; but it

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CENT. is unquestionably evident and certain, that, even SECT. 111. at the rise of this controversy, they abhorred the PART I principal tenets of Baius, which he had taken from Augustin, and adopted as his own. In the year 1567, this doctor was accused at the court of Rome, and seventy-six propositions, drawn from his writings, were condemned by Pope Pius V: in a circular letter expressly composed for that purpose. This condemnation, however, was issued out in an artful and insidious manner, without any mention being made of the name of the author; for the fatal consequences that had arisen from the rash and inconsiderate measures employed by the court of Rome against Luther, were too fresh in the remembrance of the prudent pontif to permit his falling into new blunders of the same nature. The thunder of excommunication was therefore suppressed by the dictates of prudence, and the person and functions of Baius were spared, while his tenets were censured. About thirteen years after this transaction, Gregory XIII, complied so far with the importunate solicitations of a Jesuit, named Tolet, as to reinforce the sentence of Pius V. by a new condemnation of the opinions of the Flemish doctor. Baius submitted to this new sentence, either from an apprehension that it would be followed by severer proceedings in case of resistance, or, which is more probable, on account of the ambiguity that reigned in the papal edict, and the vague and confused manner in which the obnoxious propositions were therein expressed. his example, in this respect, was not followed by the other doctors who had formed their theological system upon that of Augustin  $[f_i]$ ; and even

<sup>[</sup>f] See, for an account of the disputes relating to Bains, the works of that author, published in 4to, at Cologn, in 1696, particularly the second part, or appendix, entitled, "Baiana,

even, at this day, many divines of the Romish E N T. xvI. communion, and particularly the Jansenists, de-stet. III. clare openly that Baius was unjustly treated, and PART L that the two edicts of Pius and Gregory, mentioned above, are absolutely destitute of all authority, and have never been received as laws of the church [g].

XXXIX. Be that as it may, it is at least cer-Contests with the Jetain, that the doctrine of Augustin, with respect suits, Lewito the nature and operations of divine grace, lost us, and Hanone of its credit in consequence of these edicts, medius. but was embraced and propagated, with the same zeal as formerly, throughout all the Belgic provinces, and more especially in the two flourishing universities of Louvain and Douay. This appeared very soon after, when two Jesuits, named Lessius and Hamedius, ventured to represent the doctrine of predestination in a manner different from that in which it appears in the writings of Augustin: For the sentiments of these Jesuits were publicly condemned by the doctors of Louvain in the year 1 587, and by those of Douay the year following. The bishops of the Low Countries were disposed to follow the example of these two universities, and had already deliberated about assembling a provincial council for this purpose, when the Roman pontif Sixtus V. suspended their proceedings by the interposition of his authority, and declared, that the cognizance and decision of religious controversies belonged only to the vicar of Christ, residing at Rome. But this cunning vicar,

Bail exortas." Bayle's Diction, at the articles Bailes, in which there is an ample and circumstantial account of these disputes. Du Pin, Bibliotheque des Auteurs Ecclesiastiques, tom. xvi. P. 144. Histoire de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom. iii. p. 161. [g] This is demonstrated fully by an anonymous writer, in Piece entitled, "Dissertation sur les Bulles contre Bailes, ou Pon montre qu'elles ne sont pus recues par l'Église, and published in two volumes 8vo, at Utrecht, in the year 1727.

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CENT vicar, whose sagacity, prudence, and knowledge XVI.

SET. III. of men and things, never failed him in transactions

PART tof this nature, wisely avoided making use of the privilege he claimed with such confidence; that he might not inflame the divisions and animosities that were already subsisting. And accordingly, in the year 1588, this contest was finished; and the storm laid in such a manner, as that the contending parties were left in the quiet possession of their respective opinions, and solemnly prohibited from disputing, either in public or in private, upon the intricate points that had excited their divisions. Had the succeeding pontifs, instead of assuming the character of judges in this ambiguous and difficult controversy, imitated the prudence of Sixtus V. and imposed silence on the litigious doctors, who renewed afterwards the debates concerning divine grace, the tranquillity and unity of the church of Rome would not have been interrupted by such violent divisions as rage at present in its bosom [b].

the Molimists.

The course. XL. The Roman church had scarcely perceived versies with the fruits of that calm, which the prudence of Sixtus had restored, by suppressing, instead of deciding, the late controversies, when new commotions, of the same nature, but of a much more terrible aspect, arose to disturb its tranquillity. These were occasioned by Lewis Molina [1], a Spanish

[i] From this Spanish doctor's name proceeded the wellknown denomination of Molinists, by which those Roman-ca-

tholics .

<sup>[</sup>b] See Apologie Historique des deux Censures de Louvain et de Douay, par M. Gery, 1688, in 8vo. The famous Pasquer Quenel was the author of this apology, if we may give credit to the writer of a book, entitled, " Catechisme Historique et Dogmatique sur les Contestations de l'Eglise," tom, i. p. 104. See an account of this controversy in a piece entitled, "Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Controverses dans l'Eglise Romaine sur la Predestination et sur la Grace." This curious piece is to be found in the fourteenth tome of Le Clerc's Biblistheque Universelle Historique.

Spanish Jesuit, professor of divinity in the uni-CENT. versity of Ebora in Portugal, who, in the year 1588, SECT. III. published a book to shew that the operations of di-PART I. vine grace were entirely consistent with the freedom of Luman will [k], and who introduced a new kind of hypothesis, to remove the difficulties attending the doctrines of predestination and liberty, and to reconcile the jarring opinions of Augustinians, Themists, Semi-Pelagians, and other contentious divines [1]. This attempt of the subtile Spanish doctor was so offensive to the Dominicans who followed St Thomas as their theological guide, that they sounded, throughout the whole kingdom of Spain, the alarm of heresy, and accused the Jesuits of endeavouring to renew the errors of Pelagius. This alarm was followed by great commotions, and all things seemed to prognosticate a general flame, when Clement VIII. in the

tholics are distinguished, who seem to incline to the doctrines of grace and free-will, that are maintained in opposition to those of Augustine. Many, however, who differ widely from the sentiments of Molina, are unjustly ranked in the class of Molinists.

Les The title of this famous book is as follows: "Liberi Arbitrii Concordia cum Gratize donis, divina przescientia, providentia, przedestinatione, et reprobatione, auctore Lud. Molina." This book was first published at Lisbon, in folio, in the year 1588. Afterwards, with additions, and in 4to, at Antwerp, Lyons, Venice, and other places, in 1595. A third exition, still farther augmented, was published at Antwerp in 1600.

eternal glory was founded upon a previous knowledge and consideration of the merits of the elect; that the grace, from whese operation these merits are derived, is not efficacious by its own intrinsic power only, but also by the consent of our own will, and because it is administered in those circumstances in which the Deity, by that branch of his knowledge which is called Scientia Media, foresees that it will be efficacious. The kind of prescience, denominated in the school scientia Media, is that foreknowledge of future contingents that arises from an acquaintance with the nature and faculties of rational beings, of the circumstances in which they shall be placed, of the objects that shall be presented to them, and of the influence that these circumstances and objects must have on their actions.

CENT. the year 1594, imposed silence on the contending SECT. III. parties, promising that he himself would examine PART I with care and diligence every thing relating to this new debate, in order to decide it in such a manner as might tend to promote the cause of truth, and the peace of the church.

The congregation of Aids.

XLI. The pontif was persuaded that these gentle, remedies would soon remove the disease and that, through length of time, these heats and animosities would undoubtedly subside. But the event was far from being answerable to sucl pleasing hopes. The Dominicans, who had long tostered a deep-rooted and invincible hatre against the Jesuits, having now a favourable op portunity of venting their indignation exhausted their furious zeal against the doctrine of Molina notwithstanding the pacific orders of the papa edict. They fatigued incessantly the Spanisl monarch, Philip II. and the Roman pontif Clement VIII. with their importunate clamours until at length the latter found himself under & necessity of assembling at Rome a sort of counci for the decision of this controversy. And thus commenced, about the beginning of the year 1598, those famous deliberations concerning the contests of the Jesuits and Dominicans, which were held in what was called the congregation & auxiliis, or of aids. This congregation was s denominated on account of the principal point i debate, which was the efficacy of the aids an succours of divine grace, and its consultation were directed by Lewis Madrusi, bishop = Trent, and one of the college of cardinals, who sat as president in this assembly, which was conposed besides of three bishops and seven divine chosen out of so many different orders. The remaining part of this century was wholly employeby these spiritual judges in hearing and weighin the arguments alleged in favour of their respective

opinion—

miricans maintained, with the greatest obstinacy, seer, in.
the doctrine of their patron St Tho nas, as alone conformable to truth. The Jesuits, on the other hand, though they did not adopt the religious tenets of Molina, thought the honour of their order concerned in this controversy, on account of the opposition so publicly made to one of its members, and consequently used their utmost encleavours to have the Spanish doctor acquitted of the charge of Pelagianism, and declared free from any errors of moment. In this they acted according to the true Monastic spiri, which Vol. IV.

[m] The history and transactions of this Congregation are related and illustrated by several writers of different complexions, by Jesuits, Dominicans, and Jansenists. Hyacinth Serri, 2 Dominican, published, under the feigned name of Augustin le Blanc, in the year 1700, at Louvain, a work entitled, "Historia Congregationum de auxiliis Gratiæ div næ;" which was answered by another history of these depates, composed by Liv. de Meyer, a Jesuit. who assumed the name of Theod. Eleutnerius, in order to lie concealed from public view, and whose book is entitled, "Historia Controversiarum de Gratize divinse auxiliis." The Dominicans also published the Acta congregationem et disputationum, quæ coram Clemente VIII. et Paulo V. de auviliis divince Gratice sunt celebrete, a work composed by Thomas de Lemos, a subtile munk of their order, who, in this very congregation, had defended With great applause the glory of St Thomas against the Jesuits .- Amidst these jarring accounts, a man must be endowed with a supernatural sagueity to come at the truth. For acts are opposed to acts, testimony to testimony, and narration to narration. It is therefore as yet a matter of doubt, which the court of Rome favoured most on this occasion, the Jesuits or the Dominican, and which of these two parties defended their Sause with the most dexterity and success. There is also a history of these departes written in French, which was published, in 8vo, at Louvain, in the year 1702, under the following title: "Histoire de Congregations de auxilis, gar un Docteur de la Faculté de l'néologie de Paris." This nisto-Fian, though he be neither destitute of learning nor eleganc; being nevertheless a flaming Jansenist, discovers throughout his enmity against the Jesuits, and relates all things in a man-Ber that favours the cause of the Dominicans.

### The History of the Roman or Latin Church.

CENT. leads each order to resent the affronts that are of-SECT. III. fered to any of its members, as if they had been at all adventures, the cause of every individual monk, as if the interests of the society were involved in it.

Rites and

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XLII. Notwithstanding the zealous attempts. piety, to restore the institutions of public worship to their primitive simplicity, the multitude of vain and useless ceremonies still remained in the church; nor did the pontifs judge it proper to diminish that pomp and show, that gave the ministers of religion a great, though ill-acquired, influence on the minds of the people. Besides these ceremonies, many popular customs and inventions, which were multiplied by the clergy, and were either entirely absurd or grossly superstitious, called loudly for redress; and, indeed, the council of Trent seemed disposed to correct these abuses, and prevent their farther growth. But this good design was never carried into execution; it was abandoned, either through the corrupt prudence of the pope and clergy, who looked upon every check given to superstition as an attempt to diminish their authority, or through their criminal negligence about every thing that tended to promote the true interests of religion. Hence it happens, that in those countries where there are few protestants, and consequently where the church of Rome is in no danger of losing its credit and influence from the proximity and attempts of these pretended heretics, superstition reigns with unlimited extravagance and absurdity. Such is the case in Italy, Spain and Portugal, where the feeble glimmerings of Christianity, that yet remain, are overwhelmed and obscured by an enormous multitude of ridiculous ceremonies, and absurd, fantastic, and unaccountable, rites; so that

that a persion who arrives in any of these countries, CENT. after having passed through other nations even of sect. III. the Romish communion, is immediately struck PART! with the change, and thinks himself transported into the thickest darkness, into the most gloomy retreats, of superstition [n]. Nor, indeed, are even those countries, whom the neighbourhood of the protestants, and a more free and liberal turn of mind have rendered somewhat less absurd, entirely exempt from the dominion of superstition, and the solemn fooleries that always attend it; for the religion of Rome, in its best form, and in those places where its external worship is the least shocking, is certainly loaded with rites and observances that are highly offensive to sound reason. If, From this general view of things, we descend to a more circumstantial consideration of the innumerable abuses that are established in the discipliene of that church; if we attend to the pious. rather impious, frauds which are imposed, with impunity, upon the deluded multitude, in many places; if we pass in review the corruption of the clergy, the ignorance of the people, the devout farces that are acted in the ceremonies of public worship, and the insipid jargon and trifling rhe toric that prevail in the discourses of the Roman-catholic preachers; if we weigh all these things maturely, we shall find, that they have R 2 little

It is well known that the French, who travel into Italy, employ the whole force of their wit and raillery in rendering rediculous the monstrous superstition of the Italians. The Italians, in their turn, look upon the French that visit their country as totally destitute of all principles of religion. This is evidently the case, as we learn from the testimony of many writers, and particularly from that of Father Labat, in his Voyages en Italia et en Espagna. This agreeable Dominican lets no opportunity escape of censuring and exposing the superstition of the Spaniards and Italians; nor does he pretend to deny that his countrymen, and even he himself, passed for impious libertines in the opinion of these bigots.

### History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

CENT little regard to impartiality and truth, who pretend SECT. 111. that, since the council of Trent, the religion and PART I worship of the Roman church have been every where corrected and amended.

#### CHAP. II.

The History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

The eastern I. church may be divided into three branches.

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THE society of Christians, that goes under the general denomination of the eastern church, is dispersed throughout Europe, Asia, and Africa, and may be divided into three distinct communities. The first is, that of the Greek Christians, who agree, in all points of doctrine and worship, with the patriarch residing at Constantinople, and reject the pretended supremacy of the Roman pontif. The second comprehends those Christians who differ equally from the Roman pontif and the Grecian patriarch, in their religious opinions and institutions, and who live under the government of their own bishops and ru-The third is composed of those who are subject to the see of Rome.

The Greek ing.

II. That society of Christians, that lives in relichurch, pre-gious communion with the patriarch of Constantiperly speak-nople, is, properly speaking, the Greek, though it assumes likewise the title of the eastern church. This society is subdivided into two branches, of which the one acknowledges the supreme authority and jurisdiction of the bishop of Constantinople; while the other, though joined in communion of doctrine and worship with that prelate, yet obstinately refuses to receive his legates, or to obey his edicts, and is governed by its own laws and institutions, under the jurisdiction of spiritual rulers, who are independent on all foreign authority.

III. That

III. That part of the Greek church which CENT. acknowledges the jurisdiction of the bishop of XV. acknowledges the jurisdiction of the bishop of XV. Constantinople, is divided, as in the early ages of PART L. Christianity into four large districts or provinces Is for the Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem, most part over every one of which a bishop presides with the subject to the patricular of the patricular property of the patricul title of Patriarch, whom the inferior bishops and arch of monastic orders unanimously respect as their com. Constantimon Father. But the supreme chief of all these patriarchs, bishops, and abbots, and generally speaking, of the whole church, is the patriarch of Constantinople. This prelate has the privilege of nominating the other patriarchs, though that dignity still continues elective, and of approving the election that is made; nor is there any thing of mornent undertaken or transacted in the church without his express permission, or his especial order. It is true indeed, that, in the present decayed state of the Greek churches, whose revenues are so small, and whose former opulence is reduced almost to nothing, their spiritual rulers enjoy little more than the splendid title of Patriarchs, without being in a condition to extend their fame, or promote their cause, by any undertaking of signal importance.

IV. The spiritual jurisdiction and dominion of and is divitible patriarch of Constantinople are very extensive, ded into comprehending a considerable part of Greece, the vinces or di-Grecian Isles, Wallachia, Mouldavia, and several stricts here described. Of the European and Asiatic provinces that are subject to the Turk. The patriarch of Alexandria resides generally at Cairo, and exercises his spiritual authority in Egypt, Nubia, Lybia, and part of Arabia [o]. Damascus is the principal residence

of

<sup>[0]</sup> For an account of the patriarchate of Alexandria, and the various prelates who have filled that see, it will be proper to consult Sollerii Commentar. de Patriarchis Alexandrinis, which is prefixed to the fifth volume of the Acta Sanctorum,

R 3

Mensis

CENT of the patriarch of Antioch, whose jurisdiction exxvi.

SECT. III. tends to Mesopotamia, Syria, Cilicia, and other
PART I provinces [p], while the patriarch of Jerusalem
comprehends, within the bounds of his pontificate, Palestine, Syria [q], Arabia, the country beyond Jordan, Cana in Galilee, and mount Sion [r].

The

Mensis Junii; as also the Oriens Christianus of Le Quien, tom. 11. p. 329. The nature of their office, the extent of their authority, and the manner of their creation, are accurately described by Eus. Renaudot, in his Dissertation de Patriarcha Alexandrino, which is published in the first volume of his Lisurgiae Orientales, p. 365. The Grecian patriarch has, at this day, no hishops under his jurisdiction; the chorepiscopi or restal bishops alone are subject to his authority. All the bishops acknowledge as their chief the patriarch of the Monophysites, who is, in effect, the patriarch of Alexandria.

[p] The Jesuits have prefixed a particular and learned account of the patriarchs of Antioch to the fifth volume of the Acta SS. Mensis Julii, in which, however, there are some omissions and defects. Add to this the account that is given of the district or diocese of the patriarch of Antioch, by Mich. Le Quien, in his Oriens Christianus, tom. ii. p. 670, and by Blasius Tertius, in his "Siria Sacra, è Descriptione Historico. Geographica delle due Chiese Patriarchali, Antiocha, et Gierusalemme," published in folio at Rome, in the year 1695. There are three bishops in Syria which claim the title and dignity of patriarch of Antioch. The first is the bishop of the Melchites, a name given to the Christians in Syria, who follow the doctrine, institutions, and worship of the Greek church; the second is the spiritual guide of the Syrian Monophysites; and the third is the chief of the Maronites, who hold communion with the church of Rome. This last bishop pretends to be the true and lawful patriarch of Antioch, and is acknowledged as such, or at least receives this denomination from the Roman pontif: And yet it is certain, that the pope creates at Rome a patriarch of Antioch of his own choice. So that the see of Antioch has, at this day, four patriarchs, one from the Greeks, two from the Syrians, and one created at Rome, who is patriarch in partibus, i. e. titular patriarch, according to the signification of that usual phrase.

of Jerusalem, as it evidently belongs to that of Antioch, in which also Dr Mosheim places it in the preceding sentence.

[r] Blas. Tertii Siria Sacra, lib. ii. p. 165. D. Papeprochii Comment. de Patriarch. Hierosolym. tom. iii. Actor. Sanct. Mens. Maii. Le Quien, Oriens Christ. tom. iii. p. 102. The episcopal dominions of these three patriarchs C E N T. are indeed extremely poor and inconsiderable; for S E C T. III. the Monophysites have long since assumed the pa-PART I. triarchal seats of Alexandria and Antioch, and have deprived the Greek churches of the greatest part of their members in all those places where they gained an ascendant. And as Jerusalem is the respective bishops and rulers, that jurisdiction of the Grecian patriarchs is consequently confined there within narrow limits.

V. The right of electing the patriarch of Con-The patrist antinople is, at this day, vested in the twelve archof Conbishops who reside nearest that famous capital; etantinople. but the right of confirming this election, and of enabling the new-chosen patriarch to exercise his spiritual functions, belongs only to the Turkish emperor. This institution, however, if it is not en tirely overturned, is nevertheless, on many occasions, prostituted in a shameful manner by the corruption and avarice of the reigning ministers. Thus it happens, that many bishops, inflamed with the ambitious lust of power and pre-eminence, puchase by money what they cannot obtain by merit; and seeing themselves excluded ir om the patriarchal dignity by the suffrages of their brethren, find an open and ready way to it by the mercenary services of men in power. Nay, Lat is yet more deplorable has frequently hap-Pened; even that prelates, who have been chosen the lawful way to this eminent office, have been deposed, in order to make way for others, whose Only pretensions were ambition and bribery. And deed, generally speaking, he is looked upon by the Turkish vizirs as the most qualified for the Office of patriarch, who surpasses his competitors in the number and value of the presents he employs on that occasion. It is true, some accounts Worthy of credit represent the present state of the R 4 Greek

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SECTION respect; and it is reported, that, as the Turkish PART I manne shave gradually assumed a milder and more humane cast, the patriarchs live under their dominion with more security and repose than they did some ages ago [1].

The power of the parriarch among a people disprited by oppression, and sunk, through their extreme ignorance, into the greatest superstition, must undoubtedly be very considerable and ex-tensive; and such, indeed, it is. Its extent, however, is not entirely owing to the causes now mentioned, but to others that give no small weight and lustre to the patriarchal dignity. For this prelate does not only call councils by his owd authority, in order to decide, by their assistance, the controversies that arise, and to make use of their prudent advice and wise deliberations in directing the affairs of the church; his prerogatives go yet farther, and, by the special permission of the emperor, he administers justice and takes cognizance of civil causes among the mem-His influence is mainbers of his communion. tained, on the one hand, by the authority of the Turkish monarch, and, on the other, by his right of excommunicating the disobedient members of the Greek church. This right gives the patriarch a singular degree of influence and authority, as nothing has a more terrifying aspect to that people than a sentence of excommunication, which they reckon among the greatest and most tremen-The revenue of this prelate is drawn dous evils. particularly from the churches that are subject to his jurisdiction; and its produce varies cording to the state and circumstances of the Greek

<sup>[</sup>s] Le Quier, ibid. tom. i. p. 145.—Elsner, Beschreibung der Griechischen Corisien in der Turekey, p. 54.

## CHAP. II. History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

Greek Christians, whose condition is exposed to CENT.

many vicissitudes [t].

VI. The holy scriptures and the decrees of the PART L first seven general councils are acknowledged by The docthe Greeks as the rule of their faith. It is received, trine of the however, as a maxim established by long custom, Greek that no private person has a right to explain, for himself or others, either the declarations of scripture, or the decisions of these councils; and that the patriarch, with his brethren, are alone authorised to consult these oracles, and to declare their meaning. And, accordingly, the declarations of this prelate are looked upon as sacred and infallible directions, whose authority is supreme, and which can neither be transgressed nor disregarded without the utmost impiety. The substance of the doctrine of the Greek church is contained in a treatise entitled, The orthodox confession of the catholic and apostolic eastern church, which was drawn up by Peter Mogislaus, bishop of Kiow, in a provincial council assembled in that city. This confession was translated into Greek [u], and publicly approved and adopted, in the ear 1643, by Parthenius of Constantinople, and all the other Grecian patriarchs. It was afterwards published in Greek and Latin, at the expence of Panagiota, the Turkish emperor's interpreter, a man of great opulence and liberality, who ordered it to be distributed gratis among the Greek Christians; and

of Constantinopie, in the Acta Sanctorum Mensis Augusti, tom, i. p. 1—2;7. There is also a very ample account both of the see of Constantinople and its patriarchs, in the first volume of the Oriens Christianus of Mich. Le Quien, who treats moreover of the Latin patriarchs of that city, in the third volume of the same work, p. 786. See also a brief account of the power and revenues of the present patriarch, and of the names of the several sees under his spiritual jurisdiction, in Smith. De Eccles. Gracae Hodierno Statu, p. 48—59.

[u] It was originally composed in the Russian lauguage.

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CENT. and it was also enriched with a recommendatory XVL SECT. III. letter composed by Nectarius, patriarch of Jelean I rusalem [w]. It appears evidently from this confession, that the Greeks differ widely from the votaries of the Roman pontif, whose doctrines they reject and treat with indignation in several places, but it appears, at the same time, that their religious tenets are equally remote from those of other Christian societies. So that whoever peruses this treatise with attention will be fully convinced, how much certain writers are mistaken, who imagine that the obstacles which prevent the union of the Greeks with this or the other Christian Community, are but small and inconsiderable [x].

VII. [w] This Confession was published in 8vo, at Leipsic, with a Latin translation, by Laur. Normannus, in the year 1695. In the preface we are informed, that it had been composed by Nectarius: but this assertion is refuted by Nectarius himself, in a letter which follows immediately the preface. It is also uffirmed, both in the Preface and Title-page, that this is the first public edition that has been given of the Greek confession. But this assertion is also false; since it is well known that it was published in Holland in the year 1662, at the expence of Panagiota. The German translation of this confession was published at Francfort and Leipsic, in 4to, in 1727. The learned Jo. Christ. Kocherus has given, with his usual accuracy and erudition, an ample account both of this and the other confessions received among the Greeks, in his Biblio. theca Theologiae Symbol. p. 45 and 53. and the laborious Dr Hoffman, principal Professor of Divinity at Wittemberg, published at Breslaw, in 1751, a new edition of the Orthodox Confession, with an historical account of it. Those who are desirous of a circumstantial account of the famous Panagiota, to whom this confession is indebted for a considerable part of its credit, and who has rendered to the Greek church in general the most eminent services, will find it in Cantemir's Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman, tom. iii. p. 149.

[x] The learned Fabricius has given, in the tenth volume of his Bibliotheca Græca, p. 441. an exact and ample list of the writers, whom it is proper to consult, in order to the forming a just notion of the state, circumstances, and doctrines

of the Greek church.

VII. The votaries of Rome have found this to CENT. be true on many occasions. And the Lutherans set. III. made an experiment of the same kind, when they PART I.

presented a fruitless invitation to the Greek The design churches to embrace their doctrine and discipline, of uniting and live with them in religious communion. The with the first steps in this laudable attempt were taken by Protestants Melancthon, who sent to the patriarch of Con-miscarries. stantinople a copy of the confession of Augsburg, translated into Greek by Paul Dolscius. This present was accompanied with a letter, in which the learned and humane professor of Wittemberg represented the protestant doctrine with the utmost simplicity and faithfulness, hoping that the artless charms of truth might touch the heart of the Grecian prelate. But his hopes were disappointed; for the patriarch did not even deign to send him an answer [y]. After this, the divines of Tubingen renewed, with his successor Jeremiah [2], the correspondence which had been begun by Melancthon. They wrote frequently, during the course of several years [a], to the new patriarch, sent him another copy of the confession of Augsburg, together with a Compend of Theology, composed by Heerbrand, and translated into Greek by Martin Crusius; nor did they leave unemployed any means, which a pious and well conducted zeal could suggest as proper to gain over this prelate to their communion. The fruits, however, of this correspondence were very inconsiderable, and wholly consisted in a few letters from the Creek patriarch, written, indeed, with an amiable spirit

[y] Leo Allatius, De perpetua Consensione Ecclesiæ Orient.

et Geeident. lib. iii. cap. viii. Sect. ii. p. 1005.

[a] This correspondence commenced in the year 1576, and

saded in 1581.

the year 1559, he had sent his Deacon Demetrius to Wittemberg, to inform himself upon the spot of the genius and doctrines of the protestant religion.

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The whole strain of these letters discovered in the Greeks an inviolable attachment to the opinions and institutions of their ancestors, and was sufficient to demonstrate the vanity of attempting to dissolve it in the present situation and circumstances of that people [b].

The miserable state of the Greeks.

VIII. Nothing, indeed, more deplorable can be conceived than the state of the greatest part of the Greeks, since their subjection to the oppressive yoke of the Turkish emperors. that fatal period, almost all learning and science, human and divine, had been extinguished among them. They have neither schools, colleges, nor any of those literary establishments that ennoble human nature, by sowing in the mind the immortal seeds of knowledge and virtue. Those few that surpass the vulgar herd in intellectual acquirements, have derived this advantage from schools of learning in Sicily or Italy, where the studious Greeks usually repair in quest of knowledge, or from a perusal of the writings of the ancient doctors, and more especially of the theology of St Thomas, which they have translated into their native language [c].

Such, at least, is the notion of the learning of the modern Greeks, that is entertained by all the European

[c] The translator has inserted the note [k] of the original into the following paragraph of the English text, which begins thus: Such, at least, &c.

<sup>[</sup>b] All the acts and papers relating to this correspondence were published in one volume at Wittemberg, in the year 1584. See Christ. Matth. Pfassii Liber de Actis et Scriptis publicis Ecclesiae Wittembergicae, p. 50.—See also Jo. Alb. Fabricii Biblioth. Graca, vol. x. p. 517.—Emman. a Schelstrate, Acta Ecclesiae Orientalis contra Lutheri harcsin, published at Rome in the year 1739.—Lami Delicie Eruditorum, tom. viii. p. 176.

European Christians, as well Roman Catholics as CENT. protestants, and it is built upon the clearest evi- Sect. III. dence, and supported by testimonies of every kind. PART L Many of the Greeks deny with obstinacy this inglorious charge, and not only defend their countrymen against the imputation of such gross ignorance, but even go so far as to maintain, that all the liberal arts and sciences are in as flourishing a state in modern Greece, as they were in any period of the history of that nation. Among the writers that exalt the learning of the modern Greeks in such an extraordinary manner, the first place is due to an eminent historian [d], who has taken much pains to demonstrate the error of those who are of a different opinion. For this purpose he has not only composed a list of the learned men that adorned that country in the last century, but also makes mention of an academy founded at Constantinople by a certain Greek, whose name was Manolax, in which all the branches of philosophy, as well as the liberal arts and sciences, are taught with the utmost success and applause, after the manner of the ancient sages of Greece. But all this, though matter of fact, does by no means amount to a satisfactory proof of the point in question. It only proves, what was never doubted by any thinking person, that the populous nation of the Greeks, in which there is such a considerable number of ancient, noble, and opulent families, is not entirely destitute of men of learning and genius. But it does not at all demonstrate, that this nation, considered in general, is at present enriched with science either sacred or Profane, or makes any shining figure in the re-Public of letters. In a nation which, generally Peaking, is sunk in the most barbarous ignorance.

<sup>[</sup>d] See Dem Cantemir, Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman, tom. p. 38.

## History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

CENTrance, some men of genius and learning may SECT. III. arise, and shine like meteors in a gloomy firma-PARTIment. With respect to the academy founded at Constantinople, it may be observed, that a literary establishment, so necessary and yet so recent, confirms the judgment that has been almost universaily formed concerning the erudition of the Greeks.

> This ignorance, that reigns among the Greeks, has the most pernicious influence upon their morals. Licentiousness and impiety not only abound among the people, but also dishonour their leaders; and the calamities that arise from this corruption of manners, are deplorably augmented by their endless contentions and divisions. Their religion is a motley collection of ceremonies, the greatest part of which are either ridiculously trifling, or shockingly absurd. Yet they are much more zealous in retaining and observing these senseless rites, than in maintaining the doctrine, or obeying the precepts, of the religion they profess. Their misery would be extreme, were it not for the support they derive from the Greeks, who perform the functions of physicians and interpreters at the emperor's court; and who, by their opulence and credit, frequently interpose to reconcile the differences, or to ward off the dangers, that so often portend the destruction of their church.

dependent

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The Oreck IX. The Russians, Georgians, and Mingrelians, church in- adopt the doctrines and ceremonies of the Greek on foreign church; though they are entirely free from the wiediction jurisdiction and authority of the patriarch of Constantinople. It is true, indeed, that this prelate had formerly enjoyed the privilege of a spiritual supremacy over the Russians, to whom he sent a bishop whenever a vacancy happened. But, towards the conclusion of this century, this privilege ceased by the following incident. Jeremiah, patriarch

#### CHAP. II. History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

patriarch of Constantinople, undertook a journey CRNT. into Moscovy, to levy pecuniary succours, against SXVI. his rival Metrophanes, and to drive him, by the PART L force of money, from the patriarchal throne. this occasion, the Moscovite monks, in compliance, no doubt, with the secret orders of the Grand Duke Theodore, the son of John Basilides, employed all the influence both of threatenings and supplications to engage Jeremiah to place at the head of the Moscovite nation an independent patriarch. The patriarch of Constantinople, unable to resist such powerful solicitations, was forced to yield; and accordingly, in a council assembled at Moscow in the year 1589, nominated and proclaimed Job, archbishop of Rostow, the first patriarch of the Moscovites. This extraordinary step was, however, taken on condition that every new patriarch of the Russians should demand the consent and suffrage of the patriarch of Constantinople, and pay, at certain periods fixed for that purpose, five hundred gold ducats. The transactions of this Moscovite council were afterwards ratified in one assembled by Jeremiah at Constantinople in the year 1593, to which ratification the Turkish emperor gave his solemn consent [e]. But the privileges and immunities of the patriarch of Moscow were still farther extended about the middle of the following age, when the four eastern patriarchs, under the pontificate of Dionysius II. patriarch of Constantinople, exempted him, at the renewed solicitation of the Grand Duke of Moscovy, from the double obligation of paying tribute, and of depending, for the confirmation

<sup>[</sup>e] See Anton. Possevini Moscovia.—Mich. Le Quien, Oriens Christianus, tom. i. p. 1292.—See also a relation of this transaction, which is published in the Catalogus Codic. USS. Biblioth. Taurinens, p. 433—469.

CENT confirmation of his election and installation, on a

 $s \in CT$ . III. foreign jurisdiction [f].

gians and Mingrelians.

X. The Georgians and Mingrelians, or, as they The Geor- were anciently called, the Iberians and Colchians, have declined so remarkably since the Mahometan dominion has been established in these countries, that they can scarcely be ranked in the number of Christians. Such, in a more especial manner, is the depraved state of the latter, who wander about in the woods and mountains, and lead a savage and undisciplined life; for among the Georgians, or Iberians, there are yet some remains of religion, morals, and humanity. These nations have a pontif at their head, whom they cal! The Catholic; they have also their bishops and priests; but these spiritual rulers are a dishonour to Christianity, by their ignorance, avarice, and proflicacy; they surpass almost the populace in the corruption of their manners, and, grossly ignorant themselves of the truths and principles of religion, they never entertain the least thought of instructing If therefore it be affirmed, that the ' the people. Ceorgians and Mingrelians, at this day, are neither attached to the opinions of the Monophysites, nor to those of the Nestorians, but embrace the doctrine of the Greek church, this must affirmed rather in consequence of probable conjecture, than of certain knowledge; since it impossible almost to know, with any degree precision, what are the sentiments of a people w130 seem to lie in the thickest darkness. of religion that are observable among them, are entirely comprehended in certain sacred festives 18 and external ceremonies, of which the former a ze celebrated, and the latter are performed, witho 1130

<sup>[</sup> f ] Le Quien, Oriens Christian. tom. i. p. 155.—Nic. Bergius, De Ecciesia Muscovitica, Par. I. Scot. I. c. xviii. P. 164.

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the least appearance of decency; so that the CENT. priests administer the sacraments of baptism and SECT. III. of the Lord's supper with as little respect and de-PART L votion, as if they were partaking of an ordinary

repast [g].

XI. The eastern Christians, who renounce the Of the cast-communion of the Greek church, and differ from es that sepait both in doctrine and worship, may be compre-rate from hended under two distinct classes. To the former nion of the belong the Monophysites, or Jacobites, so called Greeks and from Jacob Albardai [b], who declare it as Latine. their opinion, that in the Savion: of the world there is only one nature; while the latter comprehends the followers of Nestorius, frequently called Chaldwans, from the country where they principally reside, and who suppose that there are two distinct persons or natures in the Son of God. The Monophysites are subdivided into two sects or . Vol. IV. parties,

. [g] Clement. Gallanus, Conciliatio Ecclesiæ Armenic. cum Romana, tom. i. p. 156.—Chardin, Voyage en Perse, &c. tom. 1. p. 67. where the reader will find Jos. Mar. Zampi's Relation de la Colchide, et Mingrelie. Lambarii Relation de la Colchide ou Mingrelie, in the Recueil des Voyages au Nord, tom. vii. p. 160. Le Quien, Oriens Christianus, tom. i. p. 1333, 1339. -See also Rich. Simon, Histoire Critique des dogmes et ceremonies des Chretiens Orientaux, c. v. and vi. p. 71. in which the learned author endeavours to remove, at least, a part of the reproach under which the Georgians and Mingrelians labour on account of their supposed ignorance and corruption. The catholics or pontifs of Georgia and Mingrelia are, at this day, independent on any foreign jurisdiction, they are, however, obliged to pay a certain tribute to the patriarch of Constantinople.

[b] This Jacob Albardai, or Baradæns, as he is called by others, restored, in the sixth century, the sect of the Mionophysites, which was almost expiring, to its former vigeur, and modelled it anew; hence they were called Jacobites. This denomination is commonly used in an extensive sense, as comprehending all the Monophysites, excepting those of A menia; it however more strictly and properly belongs on v to those Asiatic Monophysites, of which Jacob Albardai was the restorer and the chief. See Simon, Histoire de Chrevens Orientaux, ch. ix. p. 118. a work, nevertheless, that office wants correction.

CENT. parties, the one African and the other Asiatic. At SECT. 111. the heads of the Asiatics is the patriarch of Antioch PART I who resides, for the most part, in the monastery of St Ananias, which is situated near the city of Merdin, and sometimes at Merdin, his episcopal: seat, as also at Amida, Aleppo, and other Syrian cities [i]. The government of this prelate is too: extensive, and the churches over which he presides too numerous, to admit of his performing, himself, all the duties of his high office; and therefore a part of the administration of the pontificate is given to a kind of colleague, who is called the maphrian or primate of the East, and whose doctrine and discipline are said to be adopted by the eastern church beyond the Tigris. This primate used formerly to reside at Tauris, a city on the frontiers of Armenia; but his present habitation is the monastry of St Matthew, which is in the neighbourhood of Mousul, a city of Mesopotamia. It is farther observable, that all the patriarchs of the Jacobites assume the denomination of Ig-

The Copts and Abyssinians, NII. The African Monophysites are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who generally resides at Grand Cairo, and they are subdivided into Copts and Abyssinians. The denomination of Copts comprehends all those Christians who dwell in Egypt, Nubia, and the countries adjacent, and whose condition is truly deplorable. Oppressed by the insatiable avarice and tyranny of the Turks, they draw out their wretched days in misery and want, and are unable to support either their patriarch or their bishops. These are not, however, left entirely destitute; since they are, in

[4] Assemanni Dissertat. de Monophysitis, sect. viii.

<sup>[</sup>i] Assemanni Dissert. de Monophys. tom. ii.—Biblioth. Orient. Clem. Vatican. sect. viii. Faust. Nairon, Euophia sidei Chtholicæ ex Syrorum Monument. par. I. p. 40.—Le Quien Uriens Christ. tom. ii. p. 1343.

r, maintained by the liberality of those CENT. , on account of their capacity in house-SECT. III. and their dexterity in the exercise of PART I. nual arts, highly useful, though enown to the Turks, have gained ado the principal Mahometan families [1]. byssi nians, they surpass considerably oth in their numbers, their power, and nce; nor will this appear, surprising, considered, that they live under the a Christian emperor; they, neverider the Alexandrian pontif as their ent and chief, and consequently, in ising their own bishop, receive from a primate, whom they call abunna, they acknowledge as their ghostly

hese Monophysites differ from other The religicieties, whether of the Greek or Latin trines and
in several points both of doctrine rites of the
though the principal reason of their Monophyes in the opinion they entertain connature and person of Jesus Christ.

S 2 Following

t published at Paris, in 4to, in the year 1713, a ork, relative to the History of the Eastern Pathe title of " Historia Alexandrinorum Patripitarum," &c. He also published the Office ination of the Jacobite Patriarch, with remarks, sme of his Liturgiae Orient. p. 467.—The inter-: Alexandrian or Coptic church, both with rene and worship, is described by Wansleb, in his 'Eglise d'Alexandrie, que nous appellons celle optes," published at Paris in 1667. And to this of the same author, entituled, "Relation d'un pte," p. 293, in which there is a particular acoptic monasteries and religious orders. Memoires des Missions de la Compagnie de evant," tom. ii. p. g.-Mallet, Description de ii. p. 64.

lolf, Comment. in Histor. Ætbiop. p. 451, 461, Voyage d'Abissinia, tom. ii. p. 36.—Nouveaux Aissions dans le Levant, tom. iv. p. 277.—Mich. ens Christian. tom. ii. p. 641-

CENT. Following the doctrine of Dioscorus, Barsuma, XVI. Xenaias, Fullo, and others, whom they con-P'ART I sider as the heads or chief ornaments of their sect, they maintain that in Christ the divine and bumas nature were reduced into one, and consequently reject both the decrees of the council of Chalcedon, and the famous letter of Leo the Great. That, however, they may not seem to have the least inclination towards the doctrine of Eutyches, which they profess to reject with the most ardent zeal, they propose their own system with the utmost caution and circumspection, and hold the following obscure principles: That the two natures are united in Christ without either confusion or mixture; so that though the nature of our Saviour be really one, yet it is at the same time twofold and compound [n]. By this declaration it appears, that those learned men, who look upon the difference between the Monophysites and the Greek and Latin churches, rather as a dispute about words than things, are not so far mistaken as some have imagined [0]. Be that as is may, both the Asiatic

[n] Assemanni Biblioth. Orient. Clement. Vatican. tom. ii. p. 25, 26, 29, 34, 117, 133, 135, 277, 297, &c.—See, in the same work, Abulpharage's Subtile Vindication of the Dectrine of his Sect, vol. ii. p. 288. There is a complete and circumstantial account of the religion of the Abyssinians, in the Theologia Æthiopica of Gregory the Abyssinian, published by Fabricius, in his Lux evangelii toti orbi exoriens, p. 716. where there is also a list of all the writers who have given accounts of the Abyssinians.

and

[0] See La Croze, Hist. du Christianisme des Indes, p. 23-Assemanni loc. citat. tom. ii. p. 291, 297.—Rich. Simon, Hutoire des Chretiens Orientaux, p. 119.—Jo. Joach. Schroders Thesaurus Linguæ Armenicæ, p. 276. if The truth of the matter is, that the terms used by the Monophysites are something more than equivocal; they are contradictory. It may also be farther observed, that those who pretend to hold middle path between the doctrines of Nestorius and Eutyches, were greatly embarrassed, as it was almost impossible to oppose the one, without adopting, or at least appearing to adopt the other.

these,

and African Monophysites of the present times CENT. are, generally speaking, so deeply sunk in igno- XVI. rance, that their attachment to the doctrine PART I. by which they are distinguished from other Christian societies, is rather founded on their own obstinacy, and on the authority of their ancestors, than on any other circumstance; nor do they even pretended to appeal, in its behalf, to reason and argument [p].

XIV. The Armenians [q], though they agree The Armewith the other Monophysites in the main doctrine of nians. that sect relating to the unity of the divine and human nature in Christ, differ from them, nevertheless, in many points of faith, discipline, and worship; and hence it comes to pass, that they hold no communion with that branch of the Monophysites, who are Jacobites in the more limited sense of that term. The Armenian church is governed by three patriarchs [r]. The chief of  $S_3$ 

[1] The liturgies of the Copts, the Syrian Jacobites, and the Abyssinians, have been published, with learned observations, by Renaudot, in the first and second volumes of his Liturgiæ Orientales.

[9] The first writer, who gave a circumstantial account of the religion and history of the Armenians, was Clement Calani, an Italian of the order of the Theatins, whose Concilia-Loclesiae Armenicae cum Romana, was published at Rome, in three volumes, in folio, in the year 1650. The other authors, who have treated of this branch of Ecclesiastical History, are enumerated by Fabricius, in his Lux Evangelii toti orbi exoriens, ch. xxxviii. p. 640.; to which must be added, Le Quien Oriens Christianus, tom. i. p. 1362.—The History of Christianity in Armenia, which the learned La Croze has subjoined to his account of the progress of the Christian religion in Abyssinia, and which was published at the Hague in 1739, is by no means answerable to the importance and copiousness of the subject; which must be attributed to the age and infirmities of that author. For an account of the particular institutions and rites of the Armenians, see Gemelli Carreri Voyage du tour du monde, tom. ii. p. 146.

[r] Sir Paul Ricaut mentions four; but his authority, were it more respectable than it really is, cannot be compared. with that of the excellent sources from whence Dr Mosheim

draws his materials-

CENT these, whose diocese comprehends the Greater SECT. III. Armenia, beholds forty-two archbishops subjected PART I to his jurisdiction, and resides in a monastery at a place called Echmiazin. The revenues of this spiritual ruler are such as would enable him to splendid and magnificent live in the most manner [s]; but there is no mark of pomp or opulence in his external appearance, nor in his domestic economy. His table is frugal, his habit plain; nor is he distinguished from the monks, with whom he lives, by any other circumstance than his superior power and authority. He is, for the most part, elected to his patriarchal dignity by the suffrages of the bishops assembled at Echmiazin, and his election is confirmed by the solemn approbation of the Persian monarch. The second patriarch of the Armenians, who is called The Catholic, resides at Cis, a city of Cilicia, rules over the churches established in Cappadocia, Cilicia, Cyprus, and Syria, and hath twelve archbishops under his jurisdiction. He also at present acknowledges his subordination to the patriarch of Echmiazin. The third and last in rank of the patriarchs above mentioned, who has no more than eight or nine bishops under his dominion, resides in the island of Aghtamar, which is in the midst of the Great Lake of Varaspuracan, and is looked upon by the other Armenians as the enemy

> Besides these prelates, who are patriarchs in the true sense of that term, the Armenians have other spiritual leaders, who are honoured with the

of their church.

<sup>[</sup>s] R. Simon has subjoined to his Histoire de Chretiens Orient. p. 217. an account of all the Armenian churches that are subject to the jurisdiction of this grand patriarch. But this account, though taken from Uscanus, an Armenian bishop, is nevertheless detective in many respects. For an account of the residence and manner of life of the patriarch of Echmizzin, see Paul Lucas Voyage au Levant, tom. ii. p. 247, and Gemelli Carreri Voyage du tour du monde, tom. ii. p. 4—10.

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the title of Patriarchs; but this, indeed, is no CENT. more than an empty title, unattended with the SECT. III. authority and prerogatives of the patriarchal dig-PART I nity. Thus the archbishop of the Armenians, who lives at Constantinople, and whose authority is respected by the churches established in those provinces that form the connexion between Europe and Asia, enjoys the title of l'atriarch. The same denomination is given to the Armenian bishop who resides at Jerusalem; and to the prelate of the same nation, who has his episcopal seat at Caminic in Poland, and governs the Armenian churches that are established in Russia, Poland, and the adjacent countries. These bishops assume the title of Patriarchs, on account of some peculiar privileges conferred on them by the Great Patriarch of Echmiazin. For by an authority derived from this supreme head of the Armenian church, they are allowed to consecrate bishops, and to make, every third year, and distribute among their congregations, the holy chrism or ointment, which, according to a constant custom among the eastern Christians, is the privilege of the patriarchs alone [t].

XV. The Nestorians, who are also known by the The Neste. denomination of Chaldeans, have fixed their habi-rians, or tations chiefly in Mesopotamia and the adjacent countries. They have several doctrines, as well as some religious ceremonies and institutions, that are peculiar to themselves. But the main points that distinguish them from all other Christian societies, are, their persuasion that Nestorius was S 4

unjustly

<sup>[1]</sup> See the Nouveaux Memoires des Missions de la Campagnie de Jesus, tom. iii. p. 1-218, where there is an ample and circumstantial account both of the civil and religious state of the Armenians. This account has been highly applauded by M. de la Croze, for the fidelity, accuracy, and industry, with which it is drawn up, and no man was more conversant in subjects of this nature than that learned author. - See La Croze, Histoire du Christianisme d'Ethiopie, p. 345.

CENT unjustly condemned by the council of Ephesus, SECT. III. and their firm attachment to the doctrine of that PART I prelate, who maintained that there were not only two natures, but also two distinct persons in the Son of God. In the earlier ages of the church, this error was looked upon as of the most momentous and pernicious kind; but in our times it is esteemed of less consequence, by persons of the greatest weight and authority in theological matters, even among the Roman Catholic doctors. They consider this whole controversy as a dispute about words, and the opinion of Nestorius as a nominal, rather than a real, heresy; that is, as an error arising rather from the words he employed, than from his intention in the use of them. It is true indeed, that the Chaldeans attribute to Christ two natures, and even two persons; but they correct what may seem rash in this expression, by adding, that these natures and persons are so closely and intimately united, that they have only one aspect. Now the word barsops, by which they express this aspect is precisely of the same signification with the Greek word = μοσωπον, which signifies a person [u]; and from Lence it is evident, that they attached to the word aspect the same idea that we attach to the word person, and that they understood by the word person, precisely what we understand by the term nature. However that be, we must observe here, to the lasting honour of the Nestorians, that, of all the Christian societies established in the East, they have been the most careful arad successful in avoiding a multitude of superstitio opinio 🖘

<sup>[</sup>u] It is in this manner that the sentiments of the Nest rians are explained in the inscriptions which adorn the tome of their patriarchs in the city of Mousul.—See Assemand Biblioth. Uniental. Vatican. tom. iii. par. II. p. 210.—R. Simon, Histoire de la Créance des Chretiens Grientaux, ch. vii. p. 94.—Petrus Strozza, De dogmatibus Chaldeorum, published in Svo, at Rome, in the year 1617.

ppinions and practices that have infected the Greek C E N T. XVI.

and Latin churches [x].

XVI. In the earlier ages of Nestorianism the PART I. various branches of that numerous and powerful Their pasect were under the spiritual jurisdiction of the triarchs. same pontif, or catholic, who resided first at Bagdat, and afterwards at Mousul. But in this century the Nestorians were divided into two sects. They had chosen, in the year 1552, as has been already observed, two bishops at the same time, Simeon Barmana and John Sulaka, otherwise named Siud. The latter, to strengthen his interest, and to triumph over his competitor, went directly to Rome, and acknowledged the jurisdiction, that he might be supported by the credit of the Roman pontif. In the year 1555, Simeon Denha, archbishop of Gelu, adopted the party of the fugitive patriarch, who had embraced the communion of the Latin church; and, being afterwards chosen patriarch himself, fixed his residence in the city of Ormia, in the mountainous parts of Persia, where his successors still continue, and are all distinguished by the name of Simeon, so far down as the last century, these patriarchs persevered in their communion with the church of Rome, but seem at present to have withdrawn themselves from it [y]. The great Nestorian pontifs, who form the opposite party, and look with an hostile eye on this little patriarch, have since the year 1559, been distinguished by the general denomination of Elias, and reside constantly

[y] See Jos. Sim. Assemanni Biblioth. Orient. Vatican. tom. i. p. 538. and tom. ii. p. 456.

<sup>[</sup>x] See the learned dissertation of Assemanni de Syris Nestorianis, which occupies entirely the fourth volume of his Biblioth. Oriental. Vatican. and which seems to have been much consulted, and partly copied, by Mich. Le Quien, in the eleventh volume of his Oriens Christianus, p. 1078.

CENT: stantly in the city of Mousul [2]. Their spiritual sect. III. dominion is very extensive, takes in a great part the Arabian Nestorians; as also the Christians of St Thomas, who dwell along the coast of Malabar [a].

The remains of ancient sects.

XVII. Beside the Christian societies now mentioned, who still retained some faint shadow at least of that system of religion delivered by Christ and his apostles, there were other sects dispersed through a great part of Asia, whose principles and doctrines were highly pernicious. These sects derived their origin from the Ebionites, Valentinians, Manicheans, Basilidians, and other separatists, who, in the early ages of Christianity, excited schisms and factions in the church. Equally abhorred by Turks and Christians, and thus suffering oppression from all quarters, they declined from day to day, and fell at length into such barbarous superstition and ignorance, as extinguished among them every spark of true religion. Thus were they reduced to the wretched and ignominious figure they at present make, having fallen from the privileges, and almost forfeited the very name, of Christians. The sect, who pass in the East under the denomination of Sabians, who call themselves Mendai, Ijabi, or the disciples of John, and whom the Europeans entitle the Christians of St John, because they yet retain some knowledge of the gospel, is probably of Jewish origin, and seems to have been derived from the ancient hemerobaptists, of whom the writers

<sup>[2]</sup> A list of the Nestorian pontifs is given by Assemsnni, in his Biblioth. Orient. Varic. tom. iii. par. I. p. 711. which is corrected, however, in the same volume, par. II. p. CML.—See also Le Quien, Oriens Christianus, tom. ii. p. 1078.

<sup>[</sup>v] The reader will find an ample account of the Christians of St Thomas in La Croze, Histoire du Christianisme des Indes. See also Assemanni loc. citat. tom. iii. par. II. cap. ix. p. cccexiii.

writers of ecclesiastical history make frequent NT. Mention [a]. This at least is certain, that that SECT. III. John, whom they consider as the founder of their PART Lesect, bears no sort of similitude to John the Baptist, but rather resembles the person of that name whom the ancient writers represent as the chief of the Jewish Hemerobaptists [b]. These ambiguous Christians, whatever their origin be, dwell in Persia and Arabia, and principally at Bassora; and their religion consists in bodily washings, performed frequently and with great solemnity [c], and attended with certain ceremonies which the priests mingle with this superstitious service [d].

XVIII. The

[a] The sect of Hemerobaptists among the Jews were so called from their washing themselves every day, and their performing this custom with the greatest solemnity, as a religious rite necessary to salvation. The account of this sect given by Epiphanius in the introduction to his book of heresies, has been treated as a fiction, in consequence of the suspicions of inaccuracy, and want of veracity, under which that author too justly labours. Nay, the existence of the Hemerobaptists has been denied, but without reason; since they are mentioned by Justin Martyr, Eusebius, and many other ancient writers, every way worthy of credit. That the Christians of St John were descended from this sect, is rendered probable by many reasons, of which the principal and the most satisfactory may be seen in a very learned and ingenious work of Dr Mosheim, entitled, Moshemii De Rebus Christianorum ante Constantinum Magnum Commentarii, p. 44.

[b] See the preceding note.

The Mendæans at present perform these ablutions only once in a year. See Mosheim, De Rebus Christian. ante

Const. Mag. Comment. p. 45.

[d] See the work of a learned Carmelite, named Ignatius a Jesu, published at Rome, in 8vo, in the year 1652, under the following title: "Narratio originis rituum et errorum Christianorum S. Johannis: cui adjungitur discursus, per modum Dialogi, in quo confutantur xxxiv errores ejusdem nationis." Engelb. Kaemferi Amanuates Exotica, Fascic. II. Relat. XI. p. 35.—Sale's Preface to his English Translation of the Koran, p. 15.—Assemanni Biblioth. Oriental. tom. iii. par. II. p. 609.—Thevenot, Voyages, tom. iv. p. 584.—Herbelot, Biblioth.

SECT. III. religion and manners many reports of a very PART L doubtful nature are given by voyage-writers, are The Jasidian unsettled wandering tribe, who frequent the ans, or Jez-Gordian mountains, and the deserts of Curdistan, a province of Persia; the character of whose inhabitants has something in it peculiarly fierce and intractable. The Jezdæans are divided into black and white members. The former are the priests and rulers of the sect, who go arrayed in sable garments; while the latter, who compose the multitude, are cloathed in white. Their system of religion is certainly very singular, and

blioth. Orient, p. 725.—The very learned Bayer had composed an historical account of these Mendæans, which contained a variety of curious and interesting facts, and of which he designed that I should be the editor, but a sudden death prevented his executing his intention. He was of opinion (as appears from the Thesaurus Epistolicus Crozianus, tom. i. p. 21.) that these Mendæans, or disciples of St John, were a branch of the ancient Manicheans; which opinion La Croze himself seems to have adopted, as may be seen in the work now cited, tom. iii. p. 31, 52. But there is really nothing, either in the doctrines or manners of this sect, that resembles the opinions and practice of the Manicheans. Hence several learned men conjecture, that they derive their origin from the ancient idolators who worshipped a plurality of gods, and more especially from those who payed religious adoration to the stars of heaven, and who were called, by the Arabians, Sabians or Sabeans (Sabini). This opinion has been maintained with much erudition by the famous Fourmont, in a Dissertation inserted in the eighteenth volume of the 'Memoires de l'Academie des Inscriptions et des Belles Lettres,' p. 23. But it is absolutely groundless, and has not even a shadow of probability, if we except the name which the Mahometans usually give to this sect. The Mendæans, themselves, acknowledge that they are of Jewish origin, and that they were translated out of Palestine into the country they at present inhabit. They have sacred books of a very remote antiquity; among others, one which they attribute to Adam, and another composed by John, whom they revere as the founder of their sect. these books have been some years ago added to the library of the king of France, it is to be hoped that they may contribute to give us a more authentic account of this people than we have hitherto received.

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is not hitherto sufficiently known; though it be CENT. evidently composed of some Christian doctrines, SECT. III. and a motely mixture of fictions drawn from a PART 1. different source. They are distinguished from the other corrupt sects, that have dishonoured Christianity, by the peculiar impiety of their opinion concerning the evil genius. This malignant principle they call Karubin or Cherubin, i. e. one of the great ministers of the Supreme Being. And if they do not directly address religious worship to this evil minister, they treat him at least with the utmost respect, and not only abstain, themselves, from offering him any marks of hatred or contempt, but moreover will not suffer any contumelious treatment to be given him by others. Nay, they are said to carry this reverence and circumspection to such an excessive height, that no efforts of persecution, no torments, not even death itself, can engage them to conceive or express an abhorrence of this evil genius; and that they will make no scruple to put to death such persons as express, in their presence, an aversion to him [e]. XIX. The

'[e] See Hyde, Historia Relig. Veter. Persarum in Append. p. 549.—Otter, Voyage en Turquie et en Perse, tom. i. p. 121. tom. ii. p. 249. In the last century, Michael Nau, a learned Jesuit, undertook to instruct this profane sect, and to give them juster notions of religion (see D'Arvieux, Memoires ou Voyages, tom. vi. p. 362, 377), and after him another Jesuit, whose name was Monier, embarked in the same dangerous entesprize (see Memoires des Missions des Jesuites, tom. iii. p. . 291); but how they were received, and what success attended their ministry, is hitherto unknown. Rhenferdius, as appears from the letters of the learned Gisbert Cuper, published by Bayer (see p. 30), considered the Jesuzans as the descendants of the ancient Sethians. But this opinion is no less improbable than that which makes them a branch of the Manicheans; which is sufficiently refuted by their sentiments concerning Beausobre, in his Histoire de Manicheisme, the Evil Genius. tom. ii. p. 613. conjectures that the denomination of this sect is derived from the name of Jesus; but it seems rather to be borrowed

CENT. XIX. The Duruzians, or Dursians, a fierce and SECT. III. warlike people that inhabit the craggy rocks and PART Linhospitable wilds of mount Libanus, give them-Duruzians, selves out for descendants of the Franks, who, or Dursians from the eleventh century, carried on the Holy war with the Mahometans in Palestine; though this pretended origin is a matter of the greatest uncertainty. What the doctrine and discipline of this nation are at present, is extremely difficult to know, as they are at the greatest pains imaginable to conceal their religious sentiments and principles. We find, however, both in their opinions and practice, the plainest proofs of their acquaintance with Christianity. Several learned, men have imagined, that both they and the Curdi of Persia had formerly embraced the sentiments of the Manicheans, and perhaps still persevere in their pernicious errors [f].

The Chamsi, or Solares, who reside in a certain district of Mesopotamia, are supposed, by curious inquirers into these matters, to be a branch of the Samsæans mentioned by Epiphanius [8].

There are many other Semi-christian sects of these kinds in the east [b], whose principles, tenets,

borrowed from the word Jazid or Jezdan, which, in the Persian language, signifies the Good God, and is opposed to Abrimne, or Arimanius, the Evil Principle (see Herbelot, Biblioth. Orientale, p. 484.—Charefeddin Aly, Hist. de Timurbec, tom. iii. p. 81), so that the term Jazidans points out that sect as the worshippers of the good or true God. Notwithstanding the plausibility of this account of the matter, it is not impossible that the city Jezd, of which Otter speaks in his Voyage en Turquie et en Perse, tom. i. p. 283. may have given rise to the title of Jasidians, or Jezdavons.

[f] See Lucas, Voyages en Grece et Asie Mineure, tom. ii. p. 36.—Hyde, Histor. Relig. Veter. Persar. p. 491, 554.—Sir Paul Ricaut's History of the Ottoman Empire, vol. i. p. 313.

[g] Hyde, Histor. Relig. Veter. Persur, p. 555.

[n] See the work of the Jesuit Diusse, entitled, "Lettres F.diffantes et Curieuses des Missions Etrangeres," tom. i. p.

63.

tenets, and institutions, are far from being un-CENT. Worthy of the curiosity of the learned. And those SECT. III. who would be at the pains to turn their researches PART I. this way, and more especially to have the religious books of these sects conveyed into Europe, would undoubtedly render eminent service to the cause of sacred literature, and obtain applause from all who have a taste for the study of Christian antiquities; for the accounts which have hitherto been given of these nations and sects are full of uncertainty and contradiction,

XX. The missionaries of Rome have never of the ceased to display in these parts of the world their Greeks who dexterity in making proselytes, and accordingly the Roman have founded, though with great difficulty and commuexpence, among the greatest part of the sects now mentioned, congregations that adopt the doctrine, and acknowledge the jurisdiction, of the Roman pontif. It is abundantly known, that, among the Greeks, who live under the empire of the Turk, and also among those who are subject to the dominion of the Venetians, the emperor of the Romans, and other Christian princes, there are several who have adopted the faith and discipline of the Latin church, and are governed by their own clergy and bishops, who receive their confirmation and authority from Rome. In this latter city there is a college, expressly founded with a view to multiply these apostatizing societies, and to increase and strengthen the credit and authority of the Roman pontif among the Greeks. In these colleges a certain number of Grecian students, who have given early marks of genius. and capacity, are instructed in the arts and sciences, and are more especially prepossessed with the deepest sentiments

<sup>63.</sup> This author tells us, that in the mountains which separate Persia from India, there lives a sect of Christians who imprint the sign of the cross on their bodies with a red hot iron.

CENT sentiments of veneration and zeal for the authority SECT. III. of the pope. Such an institution, accompanied PARTI with the efforts and labours of the missionaries, could not fail, one would think, to gain an immense number of proselytes to Rome, considering the unhappy state of the Grecian churches. the case is quite otherwise; for the most respectable writers, even of the Roman Catholic persuasion, acknowledge fairly, that the proselytes they have drawn from the Greek churches make a wretched and despicable figure, in point of number, opulence, and dignity, when compared with those, to whom the religion, government, nay, the very name of Rome, are disgusting and odious. They observe farther, that the sincerity of a great part of these proselytes is of the Grecian stamp; so that, when a favourable occasion is offered them of renouncing, with advantage, their pretended conversion, they seldom fail, not only to return to the bosom of their own church, but even to recompence the good offices they received from the Romans with the most injurious treatment. The same writers mention another circumstance, much less surprising, indeed, than those now mentioned, but much more dishonourable to the church of Rome; and that circumstance is, that even those of the Greek students who are educated at Rome with such care, as might naturally attach them to its religion and government, are, nevertheless, so disgusted and shocked at the corruptions of its church, clergy, and people, that they forget, more notoriously than others, the obligations with which they have been loaded, and exert themselves with peculiar obstinacy and bitterness in opposing the credit and authority of the Latin church [i].

XXI. In

<sup>[</sup>i] See, among other authors who have treated this point of history, Urb. Cerri, Etat. present. d'Eglise Romaine, p. 82, in which

XXI. In their efforts to extend the papal empire CENT.

over the Greek churches, the designing pontifs did SRCT. II.

not forget the church of Russia, the chief bulwark PART I.

and ornament of the Grecian faith. On the con-A junction trary, frequent deliberations were held at Rome, between the about the proper methods of uniting, or rather Russian and subjecting this church to the papal hierarchy. In churches atthis century John Basilides, Grand Duke of the tempted in Russians, seemed to discover a propensity towards this union, by sending, in the year 1580, a solemn embassy to Gregory XIII. to exhort that pontif to resume the negociations relative to this important matter, that so they might be brought to a happy and speedy conclusion. 'Accordingly, the year following, Antony Possevin, a learned and artful Jesuit, was charged with this commistion by the Roman pontif, and sent into Muscovy to bring it into execution. But this dexterous missionary, though he spared no pains to obtain the purposes of his ambitious court, found by experience that all his efforts were unequal to the task he had undertaken; nor did the Russian ambassadors, who arrived at Rome soon after, bring any thing to the ardent wishes of the pontif, but empty promises, conceived in dubious and general terms, on which little dependence could be made [k]. And, indeed, the event abundantly shewed.

which, speaking of the Greeks, he expresses himself in the following manner: "Ils deviennent les plus violens ennemis les Catholiques lorsqu'ils ont apris nos sciences, et qu'ils ont onnoissance de nos imperfections:" i. e. in plain English, l'hey (the Greeks) become the bitterest enemies of us Roman Catholics, when they have been instructed in our sciences, and have acquired the knowledge of our imperfections. Other estimonies of a like nature shall be given hereafter.—Mich. Quien has given us an enumeration, although a defective tae, of the Greek bishops that follow the rites of the Roman baurch, in his Oriens Christ. tom. iii. p. 860.

[4] See the conferences between Possevin and the duke of uscovy, together with the other writings of this Jesuit, relative

C E N T. she wed, that Basilides had no other view, in all SRCT. III. these negociations, than to flatter the pope, and PART Lobtain his assistance, in order to bring to an advantageous conclusion the unsuccessful war, which

he had carried on against Poland.

The ministry of Possevin and his associates was, however, attended with more fruit among that part of the Russians who reside in the Polish dominions, many of whom embraced the doctrine and rites of the Roman church, in consequence of an association agreed on in the year 1596, in a meeting at Bresty, the capital of the Palatinate of Cujavia. Those that thus submitted to the communion of Rome were called the United, while the adverse party, who adhered to the doctrine and jurisdiction of the patriarch of Constantinople, were distinguished by the title of the Non-united [1]. It is likewise farther worthy of observation here, that there has been established at Kiovia, since the fourteenth century, a congregation of Russians, subject to the jurisdiction of the Roman pontif, and ruled by its own Metropolitans, who are entirely distinct from the Russian bishops that reside in that city [m].

XII. The Roman missionaries made scarcely The votaries of Rome any spiritual conquests worthy of mention among etill less nueither the Asiatic or African Monophysites. About DICTOUS &the middle of the preceding century, a little inmong the Monophysites, Nesto-significant church, that acknowledged the juris-Armenians. diction of the Roman pontif, was erected among the Nestorians, whose patriarchs, successively

> tive to the negociation in question, that are subjoined to his work, called Moscovia. - See also La Vie du P. Possevin, par Jean Dorigny, livr. v. p. 351.

[1] Adr. Regenvolschii Histor. Ecclesiar. Slavonicar. lib.

named

iv. cap. ii. p. 465.

[m] See Mich. Le Quien, Oriens Christianus, tom. i. P 1274. and tom. iii. p. 1126.— Acta Sanctorum, tom. ii. Fe bruar. p. 693.

# CHAP. II. History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

named Joseph [n], reside in the city of Diarbek. CENT. Some of the Armenian provinces embraced the SECT. III. doctrines and discipline of Rome so early as the PART I. fourteenth century, under the pontificate of John XXII. who, in the year 1318, sent them a Dominican monk to govern their church, with the title and authority of an archbishop. The episcopal seat of this spiritual ruler was first fixed at Adorbigana, in the district of Soldania [0]; but was afterwards transferred to Naxivan, where it still remains in the hands of the Dominicans, who alone are admitted to that ghostly dignity [p]. The Armenian churches in Poland, who have embraced the faith of Rome, have also their bishop, who resides at Lemberg [q]. The Georgians and Mingrelians, who were visited by some monks of the Theatin and Capuchin orders, disgusted these missionaries by their ferocity and ignorance, remained inattentive to their counsels, and unmoved by their admonitions; so that their ministry and labours were scarcely attended with any visible fruit [r].

XXIII. The pompous accounts which the pa-The labours pal missionaries have given of the vast success of of the Rother labours among all these Grecian sects, are sionaries acqually destitute of candour and truth. It is evi-mong all these sects, from testimonies of the best and most reproduce litespectable authority, that, in some of these countle fruit. tries, they do nothing more than administer clandestine baptism to sick infants who are committed to their care, as they appear in the fictimitious

[9] Memoires des Missions de la Compagnie de Jesus, tora.

ii. p. 54. [r] Urb. Cerri Etat present de l'Eglise Romaine, p. 162.

<sup>[</sup>n] See Assemanni Biblioth. Orient. Vatican. tom: iii. par. I. p. 615.—Le Quien, Oriens Christianus, tom. ii. p. 1084.

<sup>[</sup>o] Odor. Raynald, Annal. tom. xv. ad A. 1318, sect. iv. [p] Le Quien, Oriens Christian. tom. iii. p. 1362 and 14031-Clemens Galanus, Conciliatione Ecclesiae Armeniae cum Rosmana, tom. i. p. 527.

CENT. tious character of physicians [s]; and that, in

XVI other places, the whole success of their ministry PART I is confined to the gathering together some wretched tribes of indigent converts, whose poverty is the only bond of their attachment to the church of Rome, and who, when the papal largesses are suspended or withdrawn, fall from their pretended alliance to Rome, and return to the religion of their ancestors [t]. It happens also, from time to time, that a person of distinction among the Greeks or Orientals embraces the doctrine of the Latin church, and promises obedience to its pontif, nay, carries matters so far as to repair to Rome to testify his respectful submission to the apostolic see. But in these obsequious steps the noble converts are almost always moved by avarice or ambition; and accordingly, when the face of their affairs changes, when they have obtained their purposes, and have nothing more to expect, then they, generally speaking, either suddenly abandon the church of Rome, or express their attachment to it in such ambiguous terms, as are only calculated to deceive. Those who, like the Nestorian bishop of Diarbek [u], continue stedfast in the profession of the Roman faith, and even transmit it with an appearance of zeal to their

[s] Urb. Cerri Etat present de l'Église Romaine, p. 164.—Gabr. de Chinon, Relations nouvelles du Levant, par. I. c. vi. p. 174. This Capuchin monk delivers his opinion on many subjects with frankness and candour.

[1] See Chardin's Voyages en Perse, tom. i. p. 186. tom. ii. p. 53, 75, 206, 271, 349, and principally tom. iii. p. 433, of the last enition published in Holland, in 4to; for, in the former editions, all the scandalous transactions of the Roman missionaries among the Armenians, Colchians, Iberians, and Persians, are entirely wanting.—See also Chinon, Relations of Levant, par. II. p. 308, which regards the Armenians; and Maillet, Description d'Egypte, tom. iii. p. 65, which is relative to the Copts.

[u] Otherwise named Amidad and Caramit.

## CHAP. II. History of the Greek and Eastern Churches.

their posterity, are excited to this perseverance CEN 'T.
by no other motive than the uninterrupted liberali-SECT. II
ty of the Roman pontif.

PART. I.

On the other hand, the bishops of Rome are extremely attentive and assiduous in employing all the methods in their power to maintain and extend their dominion among the Christians of the East. For this purpose, they treat, with the greatest lenity and indulgence, the proselytes they have made in these parts of the world, that their yoke may not appear intolerable. Nay, they carry this indulgence so far, as to shew evidently, that they are actuated more by a love of power, than by an attachment to their own doctrines and institutions. For they do not only allow the Greek and other eastern proselytes the liberty of retain-ing, in their public worship, the rites and ceremonies of their ancestors (though in direct oppo-sition with the religious service of the church of Rome), and of living in a manner repugnant to the customs and practice of the Latin world; but, what is much more surprising, they suffer the peculiar doctrines, that distinguish the Greeks and Orientals from all other Christian societies, to remain in the public religious books of the proselytes already mentioned, and even to be reprinted at Rome in those that are sent abroad for their use [m]. The truth of the matter seems to Т 3 be

[w] Assemanni complains in many passages of his Biblioth. Orient. Vatican. that even the very books that were printed at Rome for the use of the Nestorians, Jacobites, and Armenians, were not corrected nor purged from the errors peculiar to these sects; and he looks upon this negligence as the reason of the defection of many Roman converts, and of their return to the bosom of the eastern and Greek churches, to which they originally belonged.—See, on the other hand, the Lettras Choisies du R. Simon, tom. ii. let. xxiii. p. 156, in which this author pretends to defend this conduct of the Romans, which some attribute to indolence and neglect, others to artifice and pruudence.

jection -

The Maro
XXIV. The Maronites and Antilibanus, date their subjection to the spiritual jurisdiction of the Roman pontif from the time that the Latins carried their hostile arms into Palestine, with a view to make themselves masters of the Holy land [x]. This sub-

[x] The Maronite doctors, and more especially those that reside at Rome, maintain, with the greatest efforts of zeal and argument, that the religion of Rome has always been preserved among them in its purity, and exempt from any mixture of heresy or error. The proof of this assertion has been attempted, with great labour and industry, by Faust. Nairon, in his Dissertatio de origine, nomine, ac religione, Maronitarum, published in 8vo at Rome, in the year 1679. It was from this treatise, and some other Maronite writers, that De la Roche drew the materials of his discourse concerning the origin of the Maronites, together with the abridgment of their history, which is inserted in the second volume of his Verage de Syrie et du Mont Liban, p. 28, &c. But neither this hypothesis, nor the authorities by which it is supported, have any weight with the most learned men of the Roman church; who maintain, that the Maronites derived their origin from the Monophysites, and adhered to the doctrine of the Monothelites!, until the twelfth century, when they embraced the communion of Rome. See R. Simon, Histoire Critique des Chretiens Orientaux, ch. xiii. p. 146. - Euseb. Renaudot, Histor. Patriarch. Alexand. in Præfat. iii. 2. in Histor. p. 49. The very learned Assemanni, who was himself a Maronite, steers a middle way between these two opposite accounts, in his Biblioth. Orient. Vatic. tom. i. p. 496. while the matter in debate is lest undecided by Mich. le Quien, in his Oriens Christianus, tom. iii. p. 1. where he gives an account of the Maronite church and its spiritual rulers .- For my own part, I am persuaded, that those who consider that all the Maronites have not as yet embraced the faith, or acknowledged the jurisdiction of Rome, will be little disposed to receive with credulity

<sup>†</sup> Those who maintained, that, notwithstanding the two natures in Christ. viz. the human and the divine, there was, nevertheless, but one will, which was the divine.

jection however was agreed to, with this express C E N T. condition, that neither the popes nor their emis-sacr III. saries should pretend to change or abolish any PART L thing that related to the ancient rites, moral precepts, or religious opinions, of this people. So that, in reality there is nothing to be found among the Maronites that savours of popery, if we except their attachment to the Roman pontif [7], who is obliged to pay very dear for their friendship. For, as the Maronites live in the utmost distress of poverty, under the tyrannical yoke of the Mahometans, the bishop of Rome is under a necessity of furnishing them with such T 4 subsidies

the assertions of certain Naronite priests, who are, after the manner of the Syrians, much addicted to boasting and exaggeration. Certain it is, that there are Maronites in Syria, who still behold the church of Rome with the greatest aversion and abhorrence; nay, what is still more remarkable, great numbers of that nation residing in Italy, even under the eye of the pontif, opposed his authority during the last century, and threw the court of Rome into great perplexity. One body of these non-conforming Maronites retired into the vallies of Piedmont, where they joined the Waldenses; another, above six hundred in number, with a bishop and several ecclesiastics at their head, fled into Corsica, and implored the protection of the republic of Genoa against the violence of the Inquisitors. See Urb. Cerri Etat. present del'Eglise Romaine, p. 121, 122. Now, may it not be asked here, What could have excited the Maronites in Italy to this public and vigorous opposition to the Roman pontif, if it be true that their opinions were in all respects conformable to the doctrines and decrees of the church of Rome? This opposition could not have been owing to any thing but a difference in point of doctrine and belief; since the church of Rome allowed, and still allows the Maronites under its jurisdiction, to retain and perform the religious rites and institutions that have been handed down to them from their ancestors, and to follow the precepts and rules of life to which they have always been accustomed. Compare with the authors above cited, Thesaur. Epistol. Crozian, tom. i. p. 11.

[y] The reader will do well to consult principally, on this subject, the observations subjoined by Rich. Simon, to his French translation of the Italian Jesuit Dandini's Voyage to Mount Libanus, published in 12mo at Paris, in 1685. See also Euseb. Renaudot, Historia Patriarch. Alexandr. p. 548.

CENT. subsidies as may appease the voracity of their op-Szcz. III. pressors, procure a subsistence for their bishop and PART L clergy, provide all things that are requisite for the support of their churches, and the uninterrupted exercise of public worship, and contribute in general to lessen their misery. Besides, the college erected at Rome by Gregory XIII. with a design to instruct the young men, frequently sent from Syria, in the various branches of useful science and sacred erudition, and to prepossess them with an early veneration and attachment for the Roman pontif, is attended with a very considerable expence. The patriarch of the Maronites performs his spiritual functions at Canobin\_ a convent of the monks of St Anthony, or mount Libanus, which is his constant residence. He claims the title of Patriarch of Antioch, and always assumes the name of Peter, as if he seemed. desirous of being considered as the successor of that apostle [2].

> [2] See Petitqueux, 'Voyage à Canobin dans le Mont Liban, in the Nouveaux Mémoires des Missions de la Campagnie de Jesus,' tom. iv. p. 252, and tom. viii. p. 355.—La Roque, Voyage de Syrie, tom. ii. p. 10.—Laur. D'Arvieux, Memoires ou Voyages, tom. ii. p. 418.

THE

# SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

#### PART II.

The History of the Modern Churches.

#### CHAPI.

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The History of the Lutheran Church.

THE rise and progress of the Evangelical CENT, or Lutheran church, have been already XVI. related, so far as they belong to the history of PART II. the Reformation. The former of these titles was as-The comsumed by that church in consequence of the ori-mencement ginal design of its founders, which was to restore of the Luto its native lustre the gospel of Christ, that had church. so long been covered with the darkness of superstition, or, in other words, to place in its proper and true light that important doctrine, which represents salvation as attainable by the merits of Christ alone. Nor did the church, now under consideration, discover any reluctance against adopting the name of the great man, whom Providence employed as the honoured instrument of its foundation and establishment. A natural sentiment of gratitude to him, by whose ministry the clouds of superstition had been chiefly dispelled. who had destroyed the claims of pride and selfsufficiency, exposed the vanity of confidence in the intercession of saints and martyrs, and pointed out the Son of God as the only proper object of trust

CENT trust to miserable mortals, excited his followers SECT. III. to assume his name, and to call their community PART II. the Lutheran Church.

> The rise of this church must be dated from that remarkable period, when the pontif Leo X. drove Martin Luther, with his friends and followers, from the bosom of the Roman hierarchy, by a solemn and violent sentence of excommunication. It began to acquire a regular form, and a considerable degree of stability and consistence, from the year 1530, when the system of doctrine and morality it had adopted, was drawn up and presented to the diet of Augsburg. And it was raised to the dignity of a lawful and complete hierarchy, totally independent on the laws and jurisdiction of the Roman pontif, in consequence of the treaty concluded at Passau, in the year 1552, between Charles V. and Maurice elector of Saxony, relating to the religious affairs of the empire.

The sum religious doctrine.

11. The great and leading principle of the Lumand sub-stance of its theran church, is, that the Holy Scriptures are the only source from whence we are to draw our religious sentiments, whether they relate to faith . or practice; and that these inspired writings are, in all matters that are essential to salvation, so plain, and so easy to be thoroughly understood that their signification may be learned, without the aid of an expositor, by every person of common sense, who has a competent knowledge of the language in which they are composed. They are, indeed, certain formularies adopted by this church, which contain the principal points of its doctrine, ranged for the sake of method and perspicuity, in their natural order. But these books have no authority but what they derive from the scriptures of truth, whose sense and meaning they are designed to convey; nor are the Lutheran doctors permitted to interpret or explain these books

that are inconsistent with the express declarations Steph. III. of the word of God. The chief and the most re-Part III. spectable of these human productions is the Confession of Augsburg, with the annexed Defence of it against the objections of the Roman-catholic doctors [a]. In the next rank may be placed the Articles

[a] When the confession of Augsburg had been presented to the diet of that city, the Roman Catholic doctors were employed to refute the doctrines it contained; and this pretended refutation was also read to that august assembly. A teply was immediately drawn up by Melancthon, and presented to the emperor; who, under the pretext of a pacific spirit, refused to receive it. This reply was published afterwards, under the title of Apologia Confessionis Augustanæ; and is the defence of that confession, mentioned by Dr Mosheim as annexed to it. To speak plain, Melancthon's love of peace and concord seems to have carried him beyond what he owed to the truth, in composing this defence of the confession of Augsburg. In the edition of that Defence that some Lutherans (and Chytræus among inters) look upon as the most genuine and authentic, Melancthon makes several strange concessions to the church of Rome; whether through servile fear, excessive charity, or hesitation of mind, I will not pretend to determine. He speaks of the presence of Christ's body in the eucharist in the very strongest terms that the Roman Catholics use to express the monstrous doctrine of Transubstantiation; and adopts those remarkable words of Theophylact, that 'the bread was not a figure only, but was truly changed into flesh.' He approves of that canon of the mass, an which the priest prays that ' the bread may be changed into the body of Christ.' It is true, that in some subsequent editions of the defence or apology now under consideration, these obnoxious passages were left out, and the phraseology that had given such just offe fee, was considerably mitigated. There is an ample account of this whole matter, together with a history of the dissensions of the Lutheran church, in the valuable and learned work of Hospinian, entitled, 'Historia Sacramentariæ Pars posterior,' p. 199, and seq. These expressions, in Melancthon's Apologia, will appear still more surprising, when we recollect that, in the course of the debates concerning the manner of Christ's presence in the eucharist. he, at length, seemed to lean visibly towards the opinions of Bucer and Calvin; and that, after his death, his followers were censured and persecuted in Saxony on this account, under the denomination

FENT. Articles of Smalcald [b], as they are commonly XVI.

SECT. III. called, together with the shorter and larger Cateyouth, and the improvement of persons of riper years. To these standard-books most churches add the Form of Concord; which, though it be not universally received, has not, on that account, occasioned any animosity or disunion; as the few points that prevent its being adopted by some churches are of an indifferent nature [c], and do not,

denomination of Philippists. This shews either that the great man now under consideration changed his opinions, or that he had formerly been seeking union and concord at the expense of truth.

Smalcald by Luther, on occasion of a meeting of the protestant electors, princes, and states, at that place. They were principally designed to shew how far the Lutherans were disposed to go, in order to avoid a final rupture, and in what sense they were willing to adopt the doctrine of Christ's presence in the eucharist. And though the terms in which these articles are expressed, be somewhat dubious, yet they are much less harsh and disgusting than those used in the Confes-

sion, the Apology, and the Form of Concord.

[c] Dr Mosheim, like an artful painter, shades those objects in the history of Lutheranism, which it is impossible to expose with advantage to a full view. Of this nature was the conduct of the Lutheran doctors in the deliberations relating to the famous Form of Concord here mentioned; a conduct that discovered such an imperious and uncharitable spirit, as would have been more consistent with the genius of the court of Rome than with the principles of a protestant church. The reader, who is desirous of an ample demonstration of the truth and justic; of this censure, has only to consult the learned work of Rod. Hospinian, entitled, 'Concordia Discors, seu de Origine et Progressu Formulæ Concordiz Burgensis." The history of this remarkable production is more amply related in the thirty-ninth and following paragraphs of this first chapter, and in the notes, which the translator has taken the liberty to add there, in order to cast a proper light upon some things that are too interesting to be viewed superficially. In the mean time I shall only observe, that the points in the Form of Concord, that prevented its being universally received, are not of such an indifferent nature

iot, in any degree, affect the grand and funda-CENT:

nental principles of true religion [d].

SECT. III.

III. The form of public worship, and the rites PART II. and ceremonies that were proper to be admitted The cerees a part of it, gave rise to disputes in several monies and places, during the infancy of the Lutheran church. public wor-Some were inclined to retain a greater number of Lutheran the ceremonies and customs that had been so ex-church. tessively multiplied in the church of Rome, than seemed either lawful or expedient to others. The latter, after the example of the Helvetic reformers, had their views entirely turned towards that simplicity and gravity that characterised the Christian worship in the primitive times; while the former were of opinion, that some indulgence was to be shewn to the weakness of the multitude, and some regard paid to institutions that had acquired a certain degree of weight through long established custom. But as these contending parties were both persuaded that the ceremonial part of religion was, generally speaking, a matter of human institution, and that consequently a diversity of external rites might be admitted among different churches professing the same religion, without any prejudice to the bonds of charity and fraternal union, these disputes could not be of any long duration. In the mean time, all those, oeremonies and observances of the church of Rome:

or omnipresence of Christ's body, together with its real and peculiar presence, in the eucharist, and to exclude from their communion the protestants, who denied these palpable absurdities, was the plan of the Lutheran doctors in composing and recommending the Form of Concord; and this plan can neither be looked upon as a matter of pure indifference, nor as a mark of Christian charity. But for a farther proof of this, see sect. xxxix. already referred to.

[d] See, for an account of the Lutheran confessions of faith, Christ. Kocheri Bibliotheca Theorogiae Symbolicae, p. 114.

C E N T. Rome, whether of a public or private nature, that SECT. III. carried palpable marks of error and superstition; PART II. were every where rejected without hesitation; and wise precautions were used to regulate the forms

of public worship in such a manner, that the genuine fruits of piety should not be choked by a multitude of insignificant rites. Besides, every church was allowed the privilege of retaining so much of the ancient form of worship as might be still observed without giving offence, and as seemed suited to the character of the people, the genius of the government, and the nature and circumstances of the place where it was founded. Hence it has happened, that, even so far down as the present times, the Lutheran churches differ considerably one from the other, with respect both to the number and nature of their religious ceremonies; a circumstance so far from tending to their dishonour, that it is, on the contrary, a very striking proof of their wisdom and moderation [e].

Concerning the visible bead, and the form Lutheran church.

IV. The supreme civil rulers of every Lutheran state are clothed also with the dignity, and perform the functions of supremacy in the church. of govern- The very essence of civil government seems manifestly to point out the necessity of investing the sovereign with this spiritual supremacy [f], and the tacit consent of the Lutheran churches has confirmed the dictates of wise policy in this respect. It must not, however, be imagined, that the ancient

> [e] Soe Balth. Meisnerus, Lib. de Legibus, lib. iv. art. iv. quæst. iv. p. 662-666.-Jo. Adam Scherzerus, Breviar. Hulsemann. Enucl. p. 1313-1321.

<sup>[</sup>f] Since nothing is more inconsistent with that sub dination and concord, which are among the great ends of civil government, than imperium in imperio, i. e. two independent sovereignties in the same body politic: Hence the genius of government, as well as the spirit of genuine Christianity, proclaims the equity of that constitution, that makes the supreme head of the state, the supreme visible ruler of the church.

cient rights and privileges of the people in eccle. CENT. siastical affairs have been totally abolished by this station. constitution of things; since it is certain, that the PART III vestiges of the authority exercised by them in the primitive times, though more striking in one place than in another, are yet more or less visible every where. Besides, it must be carefully remembered, that all civil rulers of the Lutheran persuasion are effectually restrained, by the fundamental principles of the doctrine they profess, from any attempts to change or destroy the established rule of faith and manners, to make any alteration in the essential doctrines of their religion, or in any thing that is intimately connected with them, or to impose their particular opinions upon their subjects in a despotic and arbitrary manner.

The councils, or societies, appointed by the sovereign to watch over the interests of the church, and to govern and direct its affairs, are composed of persons versed in the knowledge both of civil and ecclesiastical law, and, according to a very ancient denomination, are called Consistories. The internal government of the Lutheran church seems equally removed from episcopacy on the one hand, and from presbyterianism on the other, if we except the kingdoms of Sweden and Denmark, who retain the form of ecclesiastical government that preceded the reformation, purged, indeed, from the superstitions and abuses that rendered it so odious [g]. This constitution of the Lutheran hierarchy will not seem surpris ng, when the sentiments

shops and superintendants, under the inspection and authority of the sovereign. The archbishop of Upsal is primate of Sweden, and the only archbishop among the Lutherans. The luxury and licentiousness that too commonly flow from the opulence of the Roman Catholic clergy, are unknown in these two northern states; since the revenues of the prelate now mentioned do not amount to more than 400 pounds yearly, while those of the bishops are proportionably small.

CENT. timents of that people, with respect to ecclesiasti

SECT. III. cal polity, are duly considered. On the one hand, PARTIL they are persuaded that there is no law, of divine authority, which points out a distinction between the ministers of the gospel, with respect to rank; dignity, or prerogatives; and therefore they recede from episcopacy. But, on the other hand; they are of opinion, that a certain subordination, a diversity in point of rank and privileges among the clergy, are not only highly useful, but also necessary to the perfection of church communion; by connecting, in consequence of a mutual dependence, more closely together the members of the same body; and thus they avoid the uniformity of the presbyterian governments. They are not, however, agreed with respect to the extent of this subordination, and the degrees of superiority and precedence that ought to distinguish their doctors; for in some places this is regulated with much more regard to the ancient rules of churchgovernment, than is discovered in others. As the divine law is silent on this head, different forms of ecclesiastical polity adopted, without a breach of Christian charity and fraternal union.

The Lutheben liturship, and etructing.

V. Every country has its own Liturgies, which are the rules of proceeding in every thing that public wor- relates to external worship and the public exercise of religion. These rules, however, are not of an thod of in-immutable nature, like those institutions which bear the stamp of a divine authority, but may be augmented, corrected, or illustrated, by the order of the sovereign, when such charges appear evidently to be necessary or expedient. The liturgies used in the different countries that have embraced the system of Luther, agree perfectly in all the essential branches of religion, in all matters that can be looked upon as of real moment and impertance; but they differ widely in many things

of an indifferent nature, concerning which the CE-N-T. Holy Scriptures are silent, and which compose SECT. III. that part of the public religion that derives its PART II. authority from the wisdom and appointment of men. Assemblies for the celebration of divine worship meet every where at stated times. Here the Holy Scriptures are read publicly, prayers and hymns are addressed to the Deity, the sacraments are administered, and the people are instructed in the knowledge of religion, and excited to the practice of virtue by the discourses of their ministers. The wisest methods are used for the religious education of youth, who are not only carefully instructed in the elements of Christianity in the public schools, but are also examined, by the pastors of the churches to which they belong, in a public manner, in order to the farther im-provement of their knowledge, and the more vigorous exertion of their faculties in the study of divine truth. Hence, in almost every province, Catechisms which contain the essential truths of religion and the main precepts of morality, are published and recommended by the authority of the sovereign, as rules to be followed by the masters of schools, and by the ministers of the church, both in their private and public instructions. But as Luther left behind him an accurate and judicious production of this kind, in which the fundamental principles of religion and morality are explained and confirmed with the greatest perspicuity and force both of evidence and expression, this compendious Catechism of that eminent reformer is universally adopted as the first introduction to religious knowledge, and is one of the siandard-books of the church which bears his name. And, indeed, all the provincial catechisms are no more than illustrations and enlargements on this excellent abridgment of faith and practice.

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## The History of the Lutheran Church.

CENT. VI. Among the days that are held sacred in the S E C T. III. Lutheran church (besides that which is celebrated, PART II every week, in memory of Christ's resurrection from the dead), we may reckon all such as were The holisignalized by those glorious and important events days and ecclesiastithat proclaim the celestial mission of the Saviour, cal discipline of the and the divine authority of his holy religion [b]. Lutheran These sacred festivals, the grateful and well-groundclaurch. ed piety of ancient times had always held in the highest veneration. But the Lutheran church has gone yet farther; and, to avoid giving offence to weak brethren, has retained several which seem to have derived the respect that is paid to them, rather from the suggestions of superstition than from the dictates of true religion There are some church es, who carry the desire of multiplying festivals so far, as to observe religiously the days that were formerly set apart for celebrating the memory of the Twelve afostles.

> It is well known that the power of excommunication, i. e. of banishing from its bosom obstinate and scandalous transgressors, was a privilege enjoyed and exercised by the church from the remotest antiquity; and it is no less certain, that this privilege was perverted often to the most iniquitous and odious purposes. The founders, therefore, of the Lutheran church undertook to remove the abuses and corruptions under which this branch of ecclesiastical discipline laboured, and to restore it to its primitive purity and vigour. At first their attempt seemed to be crowned with success; since it is plain, that, during the sixteenth century, no opposition of any moment was made to the wise and moderate exercise of this spiritual authority. But in process of time this privilege fell imperceptibly into contempt; the terror of excommunication

<sup>[</sup>b] Such (for example) are the nativity, death, resurrection, and ascension of the Son of God; the descent of the Holy Spirit upon the apostles on the day of Pentecost, &c.

nication lost its force; and ecclesiastical discipline C E N T. was reduced to such a shadow, that, in most Sect. III. places, there are scarcely any remains, any traces PART IL of it to be seen at this day. This change may be attributed partly to the corrupt propensities of mankind, who are naturally desirous of destroying the influence of every institution that is designed to curb their licentious passions. It must, however, he acknowledged, that this relaxation of ecclesiastical discipline was not owing to this cause alone; other circumstances concurred to diminish the respect and submission that had been paid to the spiritual tribunal. On the one hand, the clergy abused this important privilege in various ways; some misapplying the severeity of excommunication through ignorance or imprudence, while others, still more impiously, perverted an institution, in itself extremely useful, to satisfy their private resentments, and to avenge themselves of those who had dared to offend them. On the other hand, the counsels of certain persons in power, who considered the privilege of excommunicating in the hands of the clergy as derogatory from the majesty of the sovereign, and detrimental to the interists of civil society, had no small influence in bringing this branch of ghostly jurisdiction into disrepute. It is however certain, that whatever causes may have contributed to produce this effect, the effect itself was much to be lamented; as it removed one of the most powerful restraints upon iniquity. Nor will it appear sur-Prising, when this is duly considered, that the manners of the Lutherans are so remarkably depraved, and that in a church that is deprived almost of all authority and discipline, multitudes assront the Public by their audacious irregularities, and trans-Stess, with a frontiess impudence, through the Prospect of impunity.

CENT. VII. The prosperous and unfavourable events XVI. STET. III. that belong to the history of the Lutheran church, PART II since the happy establishment of its liberty and independence, are neither numerous nor remark-Of the prosperous able, and may consequently be mentioned in a few tous events words. The rise and progress of this church, before its final and permanent establishment, that have happened to have been already related; but that very religious ran church peace, which was the instrument of its stability and independence, set bounds, at the same time, to its progress in the empire, and prevented it effectually from extending its limits [i]. Towards the conclusion of this century, Gebhard, archbishop of Cologn, discovered a propensity to enter into its communion, and, having contracted the bends of matrimony, formed the design of introducing the reformation into his dominions. But this arduous attempt, which was in direct contradiction with the famous Ecclesiastical Reservation [k] stipulated in the articles of the peace of religion concluded at Augsburg, proved abortive, and the prelate was obliged to resign his dignity, and to abandon his country [1]. On the other hand, it is certain, that the adversaries of the Lutheran church were not permitted to disturb its tranquillity,

> [i] The reason of this will be seen in the following note. 12 [k] In the diet of Augsburg, which was assembled in the year 1555, in order to execute the treaty of Passau, the several states, that had already embraced the Lutheran religion, were confirmed in the full enjoyment of their religious liberty. To prevent, however, as far as was possible, the firther progress of the reformation, Charles V. stipulated for the catholics the famous Ecclesiastical Reservation; by which it was decreed, that if any archbishop, prelate, bishop, or other ecclesiastic, should, in time to come, renounce the fait of Rome, his dignity and benefice should be forfeited, and hi = place be filled by the chapter or college, possessed of the power of election.

> [/] See Jo. Dav. Kolcri Dissertatio de Gebbardo Truebses sio .- Jo. Pet. à Ludewig Reliquiæ MStorum omnis avi, ton v. p. 383.—See also a German work, entitled, " Unschuldig.

Nachricten." A. 1748, p. 484.

tranquillity, or to hurt, in any essential point, its CENT. liberty, prosperity, and independence. Their in-SECT. III. tentions, indeed, were malignant enough; and PART II. it appeared evident, from many striking circumstances, that they were secretly projecting a new attack upon the protestants, with a view to annulthe treaty of Passau, which had been confirmed at Augsburg, and to have them declared public enemies to the empire. Such was undoubtedly the unjust and seditious design of Francis Burckhard, in composing the famous book De Autonomia, which was published in the year 1586; and also of Pistorius, in drawing up the Reasons, which the marquis of Bade, alleged in vindication of his returning back from Lutheranism into the bosom of popery [m]. These writers, and others of the same stamp, treat the Religious Peace, negociated at Passau, and ratified at Augsburg, as unjust, because obtained by force of arms, and as mull, because concluded without the knowledge and consent of the Roman pontif. They pretend also to prove, that by the changes and interpolations, which they affirm to have been made by Melancthon, in the confession of Augsburg, after it had been presented to the diet, the protestants forfeited all the privileges and advantages that they derived from the treaty now mentioned. This latter accusation gave rise to long and warm debates during this and the following century. Many learned and ingenious productions were published on that occasion, in which the Lutheran divines proved, with the utmost perspicuity and force of argument, that the Confession of Augsburg was preserved in their church in its first state, uncorrupted by any mixture, and that none of their brethren had ever departed in any instance from  $U_3$ the

[m] See Chr. Aug. Salig, Histor. August. Confession. tom. i. Ib. iv. cap. iii. p. 767.

C F N T the doctrines it contains [n]. They that felt most Sect. III. sensibly the bitter and implacable hatred of the PART II. papilts against the doctrine and worship of the Lutheran church (which they disdainfully called the new religion), were the members of that church who lived in the territories of Roman-catholic princes. This is more especially true of the protestant subjects of the house of Austria [o], who have experienced, in the most affecting manner, the dire effects of bigotry and superstition seated on a throne, and who lost the greatest part of their liberty before the conclusion of this cen-

The state of mong the Lutherans.

tury.

VIII. While the votaries of Rome were thus learning a- meditating the ruin of the Lutheran church, and exerting, for this purpose, all the powers of secret artifice and open violence, the followers of Luther were assiduously bent on defeating their efforts, and left no means unemployed, that seemed proper to maintain their own doctrine, and to strengthen their cause. The calamities they had suffered were fresh in their remembrance; and hence they were admonished to use all possible precautions to prevent their falling again into the like unhappy circumstances. Add to this, the zeal of princes and

<sup>[</sup>n] See Salig, Hist. August. Confessionis, tom. i.—It cannot indeed be denied, that Melancthon corrected and altered some passages of the Confession of Augsburg. Nay, more; it is certain, that, in the year 1555, he made use of the extraordinary credit and influence he then had, to introduce among the Saxon churches an edition of that Confession, which was not only corrected in several places, but was, moreover, upon the whole, very different from the original one. But his conduct in this step, which was extremely audacious, or at least highly imprudent, never received the approbation of the Lutheran church, nor was the Augsburg Confession, in this new shape, ever admitted as one of the standard-books of its faith and doctrine.

<sup>[0]</sup> See the Austri Evangelica of the learned Raupachiu, om. i. p. 152, tom. ii. p. 287. This work is composed in the German language.

and men in power for the advancement of true C E N T. religion, which, it must be acknowledged, was sect. III. much greater in this century, than it is in the PART II. times in which we live. Hence the original confederacy that had been formed among the German princes for the maintenance of Lutheranism, and of which the elector of Saxony was the chief, gained new strength from day to day, and foreign sovereigns, particularly those of Sweden and Denmark, were invited to enter into this grand alliance. And as it was universally agreed, that the stability and lustre of the rising church depended much on the learning of its ministers, and the progress of the sciences among those in general who professed its doctrines, so the greatest part of the confederate princes promoted, with the greatest zeal, the culture of letters, and banished, wherever their salutary influence could extend, that baneful ignorance that is the mother of superstition. The academies founded by the Lutherans at Jena, Helmstadt, and Altorf, and by the Calvinists at Francker, Leyden, and other places; the ancient universities reformed and accommodated to the constitution and exigences of a purer church than that under whose influence they had been at first established; the great number of schools that were opened in every city; the ample rewards, together with the distinguished honours, and privileges that were bestowed on men of learning and genius; all these circumstances bear honourable testimony to the generous zeal of the German princes for the advancement of useful knowledge. These noble establishments were undoubtedly expensive, and required large funds for their support. These were principally drawn from the revenues and possessions, which the piety or superstition of ancient times had consecrated to the multiplication of convents, the erection or U 4

CENT embellishment of churches, and other religious XVL SECT. III. USES.

The study of Belle languages promoted.

IX. These generous and zealous efforts in the cause of learning were attended with remarkable success. Almost all the liberal arts and sciences Lettres and were cultivated with emulation, and brought to greater degrees of perfection. All those, whose views were turned to the service of the church, were obliged to apply themselves, with diligence and assiduity, to the study of Greek, Hebrew, and Latin literature, in order to qualify them for forming with dignity and success, the duties of the sacred function; and it is well known, that in these branches of erudition several Lutheran doctors excelled in such a manner, as to acquire a deathless name in the republic of letters. lancthon, Cario, Chytræus, Reineccius, and others, were eminent for their knowledge of history. More particularly Flacius, one of the authors of the Centuria Magdeburgenses \* (that immortal work, which restored to the light of evidence and truth the facts relating to the rise and progress of the Christian church, which had been covered with thick darkness, and corrupted by innumerable fables), may be deservedly considered as the parent of ecclesiastical history. Nor should we omit mentioning the learned Martin Chemnitz, to whose Examination of the Decrees of the Council of Trent, the history of religion is more indebted, than many, at this day, are apt to imagine. While so many branches of learning were cultivated with zeal, some, it must be confessed, were too

<sup>\*</sup> The joint authors of this famous work (besides F3. cius Illyricus) were Nicolaus Gallus, Johannes Wigand and Matthias Judex, all ministers of Magdeburg; and the were assisted by Caspar Nidpruckius an Imperial counsell Johannes Baptista Heincelius an Augustinian, Basil Fab and others.

### GHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran Church.

too little pursued. Among these we may place the CENT. history of literature and philosophy; the important SECT. III. science of criticism; the study of antiquities; and PART. II. other objects of erudition that stand in connexion with them. It is, however, to be observed that notwithstanding the neglect with which these branches of science seemed, too generally, to have been treated, the foundations of their culture and improvement in future ages were really laid in this century. On the other hand, it is remarkable that Latin eloquence and poetry were carried to a very high degree of improvement, and exhibited orators and poets of the first order; from which circumstance alone it may be fairly concluded, that, if all the branches of literature and philosophy were not brought to that pitch of perfection of which they were susceptible, this was not owing to the want of industry or genius, but rather to the restraints laid upon genius by the infelicity of the times. All the votaries of science, whom a noble emulation excited to the pursuit of literary fame, were greatly animated by the example, the in-Auence, and the instructions of Melancthon, who was deservedly considered as the great and leading doctor of the Lutheran church, and whose sentiments, relating both to sacred and profane erudition, were so universally respected, that scarcely any had the courage to oppose them. In the next rank to this eminent reformer may be mentioned Joachim Camerarius of Leipsic, a shining ornament to the republic of letters in this century, who, by his zeal and application contributed much to promote the cause of universal learning, and more especially the study of elegant literature. The various

X. The revolutions of philosophy among the fate of philosophy and Lutheran doctors were many and various. Lu-mong the ther and Melancthon seemed to set out with Lutheranz resolution to banish every species of philosophy

CENT. sophy [p] from the church; and though it is im-SECT. III. possible to justify entirely this part of their conduct, PART II. yet they are less to be blamed than those scholastic doctors, whose barbarous method of teaching philosophy was expressively disgusting, and who, by a miserable abuse of the subtile precepts of Aristotle, had perverted the dictates of common sense, and introduced the greatest obscurity and confusion both in philosophy and religion. But though these abuses led the two great men now mentioned too far, and were carrying them into the opposite extreme; yet their own recollection suspended their precipitation, and they both perceived, before it was too late, that true philosophy was necessary to restrain the licentious flights of mere genius and fancy, and to guard the sanctuary of religion against the inroads of superstition and enthusiasm [q]. It was in consequence of this persuasion that Melancthon composed, in a plain and familiar style, abridgments of almost all the various branches of philosophy, which, during many years, were explained publicly to the studious youth in all the Lutheran academies and schools of learning. This celebrated reformer may not improperly be considered as an eclectic; for though in many points he followed Aristotle, and retained some degree of propensity

[p] See Christ. Aug. Heumanni Acta philosophor. art. ii. part X. p. 579.—Jo. Herm. ab Elswich, Dissertat. de varia Aristotelis fortuna in Scholis Protestantium, which Launoy has prefixed to his book De fortuna Aristotelis in Academia Parasienti, sect. viii. p. 15. sect. xiii. p. 36.

of better information, have pretended that Luther rejected the sebolastic philosophy through a total ignorance of its natural and precepts. Those that have ventured upon such an ascrtion must have been themselves grossly ignorant of the history of literature in general, as well as of the industry and crudition of Luther in particular. For a demonstrative proof this, see Bruckeri Historia Critica Philosophia, tom. in part I. p. 94, 95, 96, &c.

## CHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran church.

propensity to the ancient poilosophy of the schools, CENT.

yet he drew many things from the fecundity of his SECT. III.

own genius, and had often recourse also to the doc-PART IL

trines of the Platonics and Stoics.

XI. This method of teaching philosophy, how-Philosophiever recommendable on account of its simplicity cal sectand perspicuity, did not long enjoy alone and Aristote-unrivalled, the great credit and authority it had Rammans. obtained. Certain acute and subtile doctors. having perceived that Melancthon, in sing his Abridgments, had discovered a peculiar and predominant attachment to the philosophy of Aristotle, thought it was better to go to the source, than to drink at the stream; and therefore read and explained to their disciples the works of the Stagirite. On the other hand, it was observed, that the Jesuits, and other votaries of Rome, artfully made use of the ambiguous terms and the intricate sophistry of the ancient schoolmen, in order to puzzle the protestants, and to reduce them to silence, when they wanted such arguments as were adapted to produce conviction, And, therefore, many protestant doctors, though it might be advantageous to their cause to have the studious youth instructed in the mysteries of the Aristotelian philosophy, as it was taught in the schools, that thus they might be qualified to defend themselves with the same weapons with which they were attacked. Hence there arose. towards the conclusion of this century, three philosophical sects, the Melacthonian, the Aristotelian, and the Scholastic. The first declined gradually, and soon disappeared; while the other two imperceptibly grew into one, and acquired new vigour by this coalition, increased daily in reputation and influence, and were adopted in all the schools of learning. It is true, the followers of Ramus made violent inroads, in several places, upon the territories of these combined sects, and sometimes with

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CENT. with a certain appearance of success; but their 5 r c T. III. hopes were transitory; for after various struggles PART II they were obliged to yield, and were, at length,

entirely banished from the schools [r].

The Paraceleists, or sobjects.

800

XII. Such also was the fate of the disciples of Fire philo- Paracelsus, who, from the grand principle of their physical system, were called Fire philosephers [s], and who aimed at nothing less than the total subversion of the peripatetic philosophy and the introduction of their own reveries into the public schools. Towards the conclusion of this century the Paracelsists really made a figure in almost all the countries of Europe, as their sect was patronized and supported by the genius and eloquence of several great men, who exerted themselves, with the utmost zeal and assiduity, in its cause, and endeavoured, both by their writings and their transactions, to augment its credit. In England it found an eminent defender in M. Robert Flood, or Fludd, a man of a very singular genius [t], who illustrated, or at least attempted

> [r] Jo. Herm. ab Elswich, De fatis Aristot. in Scholis Protest. sect. xxi. p. 54.—Jo. Georg. Walchius, Historia Logices, lib. ii. cap. i. sect. iii. v. in Parcrgis Academicis, p. 613, 617. -Otto Frid. Schutzius, De vita Chytræi, lib. iv. sect. iv. p. 19.

> [s] This fanatical sect of philosophers had several denominations. They were called Theosophists, from their declaiming against human reason as a dangerous and deceitful guide, and their representing a divine and supernatural illumination as the only means of arriving at truth. They were called Philosophiper ignem, i. e. Fire-philosophers, from their maintaining that the intimate essences of natural things were only to be known by the trying efforts of fire, directed in a chymical process. They were, lastly, denominated Paracelsists, from the eminent physician and chymist of that name, who was the chief ornament and leader of that extraordinary sect.

> IF [1] The person here mentioned by Dr Moskeim is not the famous Dominican monk of that name, who, from his ardent pursuit of mathematical knowledge, was called the Seeker, and who, from his passion for chemistry, was suspected

## CHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran Church.

attempted to illustrate, the philosophy of Para-CENT. celsus, in a great number of treatises, which, SECT. IIL even in our times, are not entirely destitute of PART II. readers and admirers. The same philosophy got a certain footing in France, had several votaries in that kingdom, and was propagated with zeal at Paris, by a person whose name was Rivier, in opposition to the sentiments and efforts of the university of that city [u]. Its cause was industriously promoted in Denmark by Severinus [w]; in Germany by Kunrath, an eminent physician at Dresden, who died in the year 1605 [ and in other countries by a considerable number of warm votaries, who were by no means unsuccessful in augmenting its reputation, and multiplying its followers. As all these heralds of the new philosophy accompanied their instructions with a striking air of piety and devotion, and' seemed, in propagating their strange system, to propose to themselves no other end than the advancement of the divine glory, and the restoration of peace and concord in a divided church; a motive, in appearance, so generous and noble could not fail to procure them friends and protectors. Accordingly we find that towards the conclusion of this century, several persons, eminent for their piety and distinguished by their zeal for the advancement of true religion, joined themselves to this sect. Of this number were the Lutheran doctors Wigelius, Arndius, and others. who

of magic, but a samous physician born in the year 1574, at Milgate, in Kent, and very remarkable for his attachment to the alchymists. See Ant. Wood, Athenar. Oxoniens. vol. i. p. 610, and Hist. et Antiq. Acad. Oxoniens. lib. ii. p. 390.—P. Gassendi Examen Philosoph. Fluddanæ, tom. iii. opp. p. 259.

<sup>[</sup>u] Boulay, Histor. Acad. Paris. tom. vi.p. 527, & passim. [w] Jo. Molleri Cimbria Literata, tom. i. p. 623.

<sup>[</sup>x] Jo. Molleri, ibid. tom. ii. p. 440.

T. doctors, and the disciples of Zuingle and Calvin, XVI.

SECT III. and partly by the intestine divisions that reigned PART II among themselves, of which an account shall be given in this chapter. They have been absurdly reproached, on account of this variation in their doctrine, by Bossuet and other papal writers, who did not consider that the founders of the Lutheran church never pretended to divine inspiration; and that it is by discovering first the errors of other, that the wise generally prepare themselves for the investigation of truth.

The state of exegrtic theology.

XV. The first and principal object that drew the attention and employed the industry of the reformers, was the exposition and illustration of the sacred writings, which, according to the doctrine of the Lutheran church, contain all the treasures of celestial wisdom; all things that relate to faith and practice. Hence it happened, that the number of commentators and expositors among the Lutherans was equal to that of the eminent and learned doctors that adorned that communion, At the head of them all, Luther and Melancthon are undoubtedly to be placed; the former, on account of the sagacity and learning, discovered in his explications of several portions of scripture, and particularly of the Books of Moses, and the latter, in consequence of his commentaries on the Epistles of St Paul, and other learned labours of that kind which are abundantly known. second class of expositors, of the same communion, obtained also great applause in the learned world, by their successful application to the study of the Holy Scriptures, in which we may rank Matthias Flacius, whose Glossary and Key to the sacred writings [z] is extremely useful in unfold ing the meaning of the inspired penmen; Jol -Bugenhagius, Justus Jonas, Andrew Osia 🕶 de

<sup>[</sup>z] The Latin titles are Glossa Scriptura Sacra, and Carintura Sacra.

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der, and Martin Chemnitz, whose Harmonies of CENT.

the Evangelists are not void of merit. To these SECT. III.

we may add Victor Strigelius and Joachim Cam-PART II.

erarius, of whom the latter, in his Commentary on

the New Testament, expounds the scriptures

in a grammatical and critical manner only; and

laying aside all debated points of doctrine and re
ligious controversy, unfolds the sense of each term

and the spirit of each phrase, by the rules of criticism and the genius of the ancient languages, in

which he was a very uncommon proficient.

. XVI. All these expositors and commentators The respecabandoned the method of the ancient interpreters, tive merus who, neglecting the plain and evident purport of cred interthe words of scripture, were perpetually torturing preters. their imaginations, in order to find out a mysterious sense in each word or sentence, or were hunting after insipid allusions and chimerical applications of scripture-passages, to objects which never entered into the views of the inspired writers. On the contrary, their principal zeal and industry were employed in investigating the natural force and signification of each expression, in consequence of that golden rule of interpretation inculcated by Luther, That there is no more than one sense annexed to the words of Scripture throughout all the Books of the Old and New Testament [c]. It must, however, be acknowledged, that the examples exhibited by these judicious expositors were far from being universally followed. Many, labouring under the old-and inveterate disease of an irregular fancy and a scanty juligment, were still seeking for hidden significations and double meanings in the expressions of Holy writ. were perpetually busied in twisting all the prophe-Vol. IV.  $\mathbf{X}$ cies

<sup>[</sup>a] This golden rule will be found often defective and false, unless several prophetical, parabolical, and figurative expressions be excepted in its application.

CENT. cies of the Old Testament into an intimate con-SECT. III. nexion with the life, sufferings, and transactions PART II of Jesus Christ; and were over-sagacious in find-

ing out, in the history of the patriarchal and Jewish churches, the types and figures of the events that have happened in modern, and that may yet happen in future times. In all this they discovered more imagination than judgment; more wit than wisdom. Be that as it may, all the expositors of this age may be divided, methinks, with propriety enough into two classes, with Luther at the head of the one, and Melancthon presiding in the other. Some commentators followed the example of the former, who, after a plain and familiar explication of the sense of scripture, applied its decisions to the fixing of controverted points, and to the illustration of the doctrines and duties of religion. Others discovered a greater propensity to the method of the latter, who first divided the discourses of the sacred writers into several parts, explained them according to the rules of rhetoric, and afterwards proceeded to a more strict and almost & literal exposition of each part, taken separately, applying the result, as rarely as was possible, to points of doctrine or matters of controversy.

Concerning

XVII. Complete systems of theology were far the didactic from being numerous in this century. Melancdectrine of thon, the most eminent of all the Lutherat the Luther-doctors, collected and digested the doctrines of the church, which he so eminently adorned, into a body of divinity, under the vague title of Loci Communes, i. e. A Common Place Book of Theology. This compilation, which was afterwards, at different times reviewed, corrected, and enlarged by its author, was in such high repute during this century, and even in succeeding times, that it was considered as an universal model of doctrine for all those, who either instructed the people by

their public discourses, or promoted the know-CENT. ledge of religion by their writings [b]. The title, SECT. III. prefixed to this performance, indicates sufficiently PART II. the method, or rather the irregularity, that reigns in the arrangement of its materials; and shews that it was not the design of Melancthon to place the various truths of religion in that systematical concatenation, and that scientific order and connexion, that are observed by the philosophers in their demonstrations and discourses, but to propose them with freedom and simplicity, as they presented themselves to his view. Accordingly, in the first editions of the book under consideration, the method observed, both in delineating and illustrating these important truths, is extremely plain, and is neither loaded with the terms, the definitions, nor the distinctions, that abound in the writings of the philosophers. Thus did the Lutheran doctors, in the first period of the rising church, renounce and avoid, in imitation of the great reformer, whose name they bear, all the abstruse reasoning and subtile discussions of the scholastic doctors. But the sophistry of their adversaries, and their perpetual debates with the artful champions of the church of Rome, engaged them by degrees, as has been already observed, to change their language and their methods of reasoning; so that, in process of time, the simplicity that had reigned in their theological systems, and in their manner of explaining the truths of religion, almost totally disappeared. Even Melancthon himself fell imperceptibly into the new method, or rather into the old method revived, and enlarged the subsequent editions of his Loci Communes, by the addition of several philosophical illustrations, designed to expose the fallacious X 2

<sup>[</sup>b] See Jo. Franc. Buddeus, Isagoge ad Theologiam, lib. ii. cap. i. sect. xiii. tom. i. p. 381.

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CENT. fallacious reasonings of the Roman Catholic SECT. III. doctors. As yet, however, the discussions of PART II philosophy were but sparingly used, and the unintelligible jargon of the schoolmen was at a certain distance, and seldom borrowed. But when the founders of the Lutheran church were removed by death, and the Jesuits attacked the principles of the Reformation with redoubled animosity, armed with the intricate and perplexing dialectic of the schools; then, indeed, the scene changed, and theology assumed another aspect. The stratagem employed by the Jesuits corrupted our doctors, induced them to revive that intricate and abstruse manner of defending and illustrating religious truth that Luther and his associates had rejected, and to introduce, into the plain and artless paths of theology, all the thorns, thistles, all the dark and devious labyrinths of the scholastic philosophy. This unhappy change was deeply lamented by several divines of eminent piety and learning about the commencement of the seventeenth century, who regretted the loss of that amiable simplicity that is the attendant on divine truth; but they could not prevail upon the professors, in the different universities, to sacrifice the jargon of the schools to the dictates of common sense, nor to return to the plain, serious, and unaffected method of teaching theology that had been introduced by Luther. These obstinate doctors pleaded necessity in behalf of their scho-

necessity as superior to all authorities, and all ex-The state of amples, however respectable.

Morality a-mong the Lutherans. Connexion that there is between faith and practice, between the truths and duties of religion, will easily perceive the necessity that there was of reforming the corrupt morality, as well as the superstitious doctrines, of the church of Rome. It

lastic divinity, and looked upon this pretended

### CHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran Church.

is therefore natural, that the same persons, who CENT. had spirit enough to do the one, should mink seen IIL themselves obliged to attempt the other. Pais Pair II. they accordingly attempted, and not without a certain degree of success; for it may be affirmed with truth, that there is more genuine piety and more excellent rules of conduct in the few practical productions of Luther, Melanction, Weller, and Rivius, to mention no more, than are to be found in the innumerable volumes of all the ancient Casuists and Moralisers [c], as they are called in the barbarous language of these remote periods. It is not, however, meant even to insinuate, that the notions of these great men concerning the important science of morality were either sufficiently accurate or extensive. It appears, on the contrary, from the various debates that were carried on during this century, concerning the duties and obligations of Christians, and from the answers that were given by famous casuists to persons perplexed with religious scruples, that the true principles of morality were not as yet fixed with perspicuity and precision, the agreement or difference between the laws of nature and the precepts of Christianity sufficiently examined and determined, nor the proper distinctions made between those parts of the gospeldispensation, which are agreeable to right reason, and those that are beyond its reach and comprehension. Had not the number of adversaries, with whom the Lutheran doctors were obliged to. contend, given them perpetual employment in the field of controversy, and robbed them of that precious leisure which they might have consecrated to the advancement of real piety and vir- $X_3$ tue.

The moral writers of this century were called Moralisantes, a barbarous term, of which the English word Moralisers bears some resemblance.

This consideration will also diminish our wonder at a circumstance, which otherwise might seem surprising, that none of the famous Lutheran doctors attempted to give a regular system of morality. Melancthon himself, whose exquisite judgment rendered him peculiarly capable of reducing into a compendious system the elements of every science, never seems to have thought of treating morals in this manner; but has inserted, on the contrary, all his practical rules and instructions under the theological articles that relate to the

law, sin, free-will, faith, hope, and charity.

Polemic or controver- Call theo-

XIX. All the divines of this century were educated in the school of controversy, and so trained up to spiritual war, that an eminent theologian, and a bold and vehement disputant, were considered as synonymous terms. It could scarcely, indeed, be otherwise, in an age when foreign quarrels and intestine divisions of a religious nature threw all the countries of Europe into a state of agitation, and obliged the doctors of the contending churches to be perpetually in action, or at least in a posture of defence. These champions of the Reformation were not, however, all animated with the same spirit, nor did they attack and defend with the same arms. Such of them as were contemporary with Luther, or lived near his time, were remarkable for the simplicity of their reasoning, and attacked their adversaries with no other arguments than those which they drew from the declarations of the inspired writers, and the decisions of the ancient fathers. Towards the latter end of the century this method was considerably changed, and we see those doctors, who were its chief ornaments, reinforcing their cause with the succours of the Aristotelian philosophy

sophy, and thus losing, in point of perspicuity CENT. and evidence, what they gained in point of sub Sect. III. tilty and imagined science. It is true, as has PART II. been already observed more than once, that they were too naturally, though inconsiderately, led to adopt this method of disputing by the example of their adversaries the Roman camples. The latter having learnt, by a disagreeable and discouraging experience, that their cause was unable to support that plain and perspicuous method of reasoning, that is the proper test of religious and moral truth, had recourse to stratagim when evidence failed, and involved both their arguments and their opinions in the dark and intricate mazes of the scholastic philosophy; and it was this that engaged the protestant doctors to change their weapons, and to employ methods of defence unworthy of the glorious cause in which thy had embarked.

The spirit of zeal that animated the Lutheran divines was, generally speaking, very far from being tempered by a spirit of charity. If we except Melancthon, in whom a predominant mildpess and sweetness of natural temper triumphed over the contagious ferocity of the times, all the disputants of this century discovered too much bitterness and animosity in their transactions and in their writings. Luther himself appears at the head of this sanguine tribe, who he far surpassed in invectives and abuse, treating his adversuries with the most brutal asperity, and sparing neither rank nor condition, however elevated or respectable they might be. It must indeed be confessed, that the criminal nature of this asperity and vehemence will be much alleviated, when they are considered in one point of view with the genius of these barbarous times, and the odious cruelty and injustice of the virulent enemies, whom the oppressed reformers were called to en-X 4 counter.

CENT. counter. When the impartial inquirer considers SECT. III. the abominable calumnies that were lavished on PART II the authors and instruments of the Reformation; when he reflects upon the horrors of fire and sword employed, by blood-thirsty and bigotted tyrants, to extirpate and destroy those good men whom they wanted arguments to persuade and convince; will not his heart burn with a generous indignation? and will he not think it in some measure just, that such horrid proceedings should be represented in their proper colours, and be stigmatized by such expressions as are suited to their demerit?

Three peri- XX. In order to form a just idea of the interods must be nal state of the Lutheran church, and of the revoed in the lutions and changes that have happened in it, with history of their true springs and real causes, it is necessary an church, to consider the history of that church under three distinct periods. The first of these extends from the commencement of the Reformation to the death of Luther, which happened in the year 1546. The second takes in the space of time elapsed between the death of Luther and that of Mel: nothon, and consequently terminates in the year 1560; while the remainder of the century is comprehended in the third period.

#### The First Period.

During the first period, all things were transacted in the Lu heran Church in a manner conformable to the sentiments, counsels, and or-This eminent Reformer, ders of Luther. whose undaunted resolution, and amazing credit and authority, rendered him equal to the most arduous attempts, easily suppressed the commotions and dissensions that arose from time to time in the church, and did not suffer the sects, that several had attempted to form in its bosom, to gather

### CHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran Church.

degree of consistence and maturity. The natural SECT. UL consequence of this was, that during the life of PART II. that great man, the internal state of the Lutheran church was a state of tolerable tranquillity and tepose; and all such as attempted to foment divisions, or to introduce any essential changes, were either speedily reduced to silence, or obliged to retire from the new community.

\* XXI. The infancy of this church was troubled Debates beby an impetuous rabble of wrong-headed Fanatics, ther and the who introduced the utmost confusion wherever fanatice they had occasion to spread their pestilential errors, that trouand who pretended that they had received a di-church duvine inspiration, authorising them to erect a new ring the first kingdom of Christ, in which sin and corruption were to have no place. The leaders of this turbulent and riotous sect were Munzer, Storchius, Stubner, and others, partly Swiss, and partly Germans, who kindled the flame of discord and rebellion in several parts of Europe, and chiefly in Germany, and excited among the ignorant multitude tumults and commotions, which, though less violent in some places than in others, were, nevertheless, formidable wherever they appeared [d]. The history of this seditious band is full of obscurity and confusion. A regular, full, and accurate account of it neither has, nor could well be, committed to writing; since, on the one hand, the opinions and actions of these Fanatics were a motely chaos of inconsistencies and contradictions, and, on the other, the age, in which they lived, produced few writers who had either the leisure or the capacity to observe with diligence,

[d] Jo. Baptista Ottius, in his Annales Anabaptist, p. 8. has collected a considerable number of facts relating to these fanatical commotions, which are also mentioned by all the writers of the History of the Reformation.

CENT. gence, or to relate with accuracy, commentions

secr. III. and tumults of this extraordinary kind. It is PART II however certain, that, from the most profligate and abandoned part of this enthusiastical multitude, those seditious armies were formed, which kindled in Germany the War of the Peasants, and afterwards seized upon the city of Munster, involving the whole province of Westphalia in the most dreadful calamities. It is also well known, that the better part of this motely tribe, terrified by the unhappy and deserved fate of their unworthy associates, whom they saw extirpated and massacred with the most unrelenting severity, saved themselves from the ruin of their sect. and, at length, embraced the communion of those who are called Mennonites [e]. The zeal, vigilance, and resolution of Luther happily prevented the divisions, which the odious disciples of Munzer attempted to excite in the church he had founded, and preserved the giddy and credulous multitude from their seductions. And it may be safely affirmed, that, had it not been for the vigour and fortitude of this active and undaunted reformer, the Lutheran church would, in its infancy, have fallen a miserable prey to the enthusiastic fury of these detestable fanatics [f].

Carolostadt.

XXII. Fanatics and enthusiasts of the kind now described, while they met with the warmest opposition from Luther, found on the contrary, in Caro-

[e] The tumults of the anabaptists in Germany, and the junction of the better part of them with Mennon, have already been mentioned in a cursory manner, sect. i. chap. ii. sect. xxi. For an ample account of the origin, doctrine, and progress of the Mennonites, see the third chapter of the second part of this third section, cent. xvi.

[f] The danger that threatened the Lutheran church in these tumults of the German anabaptists, was so much the greater on account of the inclination which Munzer and Storck discovered at first for the sentiments of Luther, and the savourable disposition which Carolostadt seemed for some time to entertain with respect to these fanatics.

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Carolostadt, his colleague, such a credulous at-CENT. tention to their seductions, as naturally flattered SECT. III. them with the hopes of his patronage and favour. PART II. This divine, who was a native of Franconia, was neither destitute of learning nor merit; but imprudence and precipitation were the distinguished lines of his warm and violent character. Of these he gave the most evident marks, in the year 1522, when, during the absence of Luther, he excited no small tumult at Wittemberg, by ordering the images to be taken out of the churches, and other enterprises of a rash and dangerous nature [g]. This tumult was appeased by the sudden return of Luther, whose presence and exhortations calmed the troubled spirits of the people; and here must we look for the origin of the rupture between him and Carolostadt. For the latter immediately retired from Wittemberg to Orlamund, where he not only opposed the sentiments of Luther

The reader may perhaps imagine, from Dr Mosheim's account of this matter, that Carolostadt introduced these changes merely by his own authority; but this was far from being the case; the suppression of private masses, the removal of images out of the churches, the abolition of the law which imposed celibacy upon the clergy, which are the changes hinted at by our historian as rash and perilous, were effected by Carolostadt, in conjunction with Bugenhagius, Melancthon, Jonas Amsdorff, and others, and were confirmed by the authority of the elector of Saxony. So that there is some reason to apprehend that one of the principal causes of Luther's displeasure at these changes, was their being introduced in his absence; unless we suppose that he had not so far got rid of the fetters of superstition, as to be sensible of the absurdity and of the pernicious consequences of the use of images, &c. As to the abolition of the law that imposed celibacy on the clergy, it is well known that it was the object of his warmest approbation. This appears from the following expressions in his letter to Amsdorff: "Carolostadii nuptiæ mire placent: novi puellam: comfortet eum Dominus in bonum exemplum inhibendæ et minuendæ Papisticæ libidinis." He confirmed soon afterwards this approbation by his own example.

CENT. Luther concerning the Eucharist [b], but also XVI.

SECT. III. discovered, in several instances, a fanatical turn of the elector of Saxony, which he did accordingly, and repaired to Switz rland, where he propagated his doctrines, and taught with success, first at Zurich, and afterwards at Basil, retaining still, however, as long as he lived, a favourable disposition towards the sect of the anabaptists, and, in general,

[b] This difference of opinion between Carolostadt and Luther concerning the eucharist, was the true cause of the violent rupture between those two eminent men, and it was very little to the honour of the latter. For, however the explication, which the former gave of the words of the institution of the Lord's Supper, may appear forced, yet the sentiments he entertained of that ordinance as a commemoration of Chaist's death, and not as a celebration of his bodily presence. in consequence of a consubstantiation with the bread and wine. are infinitely more rational than the doctrine of Luther, which is loaded with some of the most palpable absurdities of transubstantiation. And if it be supposed that Carolostadt strained the rule of interpretation too far, when he alleged, that Christ pronounced the pronoun this (in the words, This is my body) pointing to his body, and not to the bread, what shall we think of Luther's explaining the nonsensical doctrine of consubstantiation by the similitude of a red hot iron, in which two elements are united, as the body of Christ is with the bread in the eucharist? But of this more in its proper place. [1] This censure is with too much truth applicable to Carolostadt.—Though he did not adopt the impious and abominable doctrines of Munzer and his band (as Dr Mosheim permits the uninstructed reader to imagine by mentioning, in general, as being a friend to these fanatics), yet he certainly was chargeable with some extravagancies that were observeable in the tenets of that wrong-headed tribe. He was for abolishing the civil law, with the municipal laws and consti-

"Great wits to madness nearly are allied."
See Val. Ern. Loscheri Historia motuum inter Lutheranos et Reformat. part I. cap. i.—Dan. Gerdes, Vita Carolostadii, in Miscell. Groningens. novis, tom. i.

tutions of the German empire, and proposed substituting the law of Moses in their place. He distinguished himself by railing at the academies, declaiming against human learning, and general to all enthusiastic teachers, who pretended CENT.

to a divine inspiration [k]. Thus then did Lu-SECT. III.

ther, in a short space of time, lay this new storm PART. II.

that the precipitation of Carolostadt had raised in

the church.

with respect to the doctrine of Christ's presence in the eucharist, was not extinguished by his exile, in the Lutheran church. It was revived, on the contrary, by a man of much the same turn of mind, a Silesian knight, and counsellor to the duke of Lignitz, whose name was Gaspar Schwenckfeldt. This nobleman, seconded by Valentine Crautwald, a man of eminent learning,

[k] This affirmation of Dr Mosheim wants much to be dified. In the original it stands thus: "Dum vixit vero baptistarum, et hominum divina visa juctantium partibus cum sese ostendit,"—i. e. as long as he lived, he shewed be self a friend to the anabaptists, and other enthusiasts who Pretended to divine inspiration. But how could our historian ert this without restriction, since it is well known that Ca-Plostadt, after his banishment from Saxony, composed a trease against enthusiasm in general, and against the extravagant enets and the violent proceedings of the anabaptists in parti-Cular? Nay, more; this treatise was addressed to Luther, ho was so affected by it, that, repenting of the unworthy Exeatment he had given to Carolostadt, he pleaded his cause, and obtained from the elector a permission for him to return Into Saxony. See Gerdes, Vita Carolostadii, in Miscell. Gromingens. After this reconciliation with Luther, he composed a treatise on the eucharist, which breathes the most amiable Spirit of moderation and humility; and, having perused the writings of Zuingle, where he saw his own sentiments on that subject maintained with the greatest perspicuity and force of evidence, he repaired, a second time, to Zurich, and from thence to Basil, where he was admitted to the offices of pastor and professor of divinity, and where, after having lived in the exemplary and constant practice of every Christian virtue, he died, amidst the warmest effusions of piety and resign mation, on the 25th of December, 1541. All this is testified solemnly in a letter of the learned and pious Grynæus of Bisil, to Pitiscus, chaplain to the elector Palatine, and shews how little credit ought to be given to the assertions of the ignorant Moreri, or to the insinuations of the insidious Bossuet.

CENT. learning, who lived at the court of the prince now

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SECT. III. mentioned, took notice of many things, which he PART II looked upon as erroneous and defective, in the opinions and rites established by Luther; and, had not the latter been extremely vigilant, as well as vigorously supported by his friends and adherents, would have undoubtedly brought about a considerable schism in the church. Every circumstance in Schwenckfeldt's conduct and appearance was adapted to give him credit and influence. His morals were pure, and his life, in all respects. exemplary. His exhortations in favour of true and solid piety were warm and persuasive, and his principal zeal was employed in promoting it among the people. By this means he gained the esteem and friendship of many learned and pious men both in the Lutheran and Helvetic churches who favoured his sentiments, and undertook to defend him against all his adversaries [1]. Notwithstanding all this he was banished by his sovereign both from the court and from his country in the year 1528, only because Zuingle had approved of his opinions concerning the eucharist and declared that they did not differ essentially from his own. From that time the persecuted knight wandered from place to place, under various turns of fortune, until death put an end t his trials in the year 1561 [m]. He had founde a small congregation in Silesia, which were perse cuted -

> [/] See Jo, Conr. Fueslini Centuria I. Epistolar à Reformatoribus Helveticis Scriptar. 169, 175, 225. Museum Helvetictom. iv. p. 445.

[m] Jo. Wigandi Schwenckfeldianismus, Lips. 1586, in 4to. -Conr. Schlussell urgi, Catalogi Hæreticor. lib. x. published at Francfort in the year 1599, in 8vo. The most accurate accounts of this nobleman have been given by Chr. Aug. Salig. in his Histor. August. Confessionis, tom. iii. lib. xi. p. 951. and by Godf. Arnold, in a German work, entitled, Kirchen und Ketzer Historie, p. 720, both which authors have pleaded the cause of Schwenckfeldt.

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cuted and ejected in our times by the popish pos-CENT.

sessors of that country; but have been restored to SECT III.

their former habitations and privileges, civil and PART II.

religious, since the year 1742, by the present king

of Prussia [n].

XXIV. The upright intentions of Schwenck-The docfeldt, and his zeal for the advancement of true trine of Schwenckpiety, deserve, no doubt, the highest commenda-selde. tion; but the same thing cannot be said of his prudence and judgment. The good man had a natural propensity towards fanaticism, and fondly imagined that he had received a divine commission to propagate his opinions. He differed from Luther, and the other friends of the Reformation, in three points, which it is proper to select from others of less consequence: The first of these points related to the doctrine concerning the eucharist. Schwenckfeldt inverted the following words of Christ: This is my body, and insisted on their being thus understood: " My body is " this, i. e. such as this bread which is broken " and consumed: a true and real food, which 66 nourisheth, sa isfieth, and delighteth the soul. " My blood is this, that is, such in its effects as " the wine, which strengthens and refresheth the 66 heart." The poor man imagined that this wonderful doctrine had been revealed to him from heaven; which circumstance alone is a sufficient demonstration of his folly.

The second point in which he differed from Luther, was in his hypothesis relating to the efficacy of the divine word. He denied, for example, that the external word, which is committed to writing in the Holy Scriptures, was endowed with the power of healing, illuminating, and renewing the mind; and he ascribed this power to the

<sup>[</sup>n] See an account of Schwenckfeldt's Confession of Fatth, in Jo. Chr. Kocheri Bibliotheca Theologia Symbolica, p. 457.

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CENT the internal word, which, according to his notion, XVI.

SECT III. was Christ himself. His discourses, however, Part II. concerning this internal word were, as usually happens to persons of his turn, so full of confusion, obscurity, and contradiction, that it was difficult to find out what his doctrine really was, and whether or not it resembled that of the Mystics and Quakers, or was borrowed from a different source.

His doctrine concerning the human nature of Christ, formed the third subject of debate between him and the Lutherans. He would not allow Christ's human nature, in its exalted state, to be called a creature, or a created substance, as such denomination appeared to him infinitely below its majestic dignity, united as it is, in that glorious state, with the divine essence. This notion of Schwenckfeldt bears a remarkable affinity to the doctrine of Eutyches, which, however, he professed to reject; and, in his turn, accused those of Nestorianism, who gave the denomination of a creature to the human nature of Christ.

The Anti-

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XXV. An intemperate zeal, by straining too far certain truths, turns them into falsehood, or, at least, often renders them the occasion of the most pernicious abuses. A striking instance of this happened during the ministry of Luther. For, while he was insisting upon the necessity of imprinting deeply in the minds of the people that doctrine of the gospel, which represents Christ's merits as the source of man's salvation, and while he was eagerly employed in censuring and refuting the popish doctors, who mixed the law and gospel together, and represented eternal happiness as the fruit of legal obedience, a fanatic arose, who abused his doctrine, by over-straining it, and thus opened a field for the most dangerous This new teacher was John Agricola, a native

of Ausleben, and an eminent doctor of the Luthe-CENT. ran church, though chargeable with vanity, pre-SECT. III. sumption, and artifice. He first began to make PARTII. a noise in the year 1538, when from the doctrine of Luther, now mentioned, he took occasion to declaim against the law, maintaining, that it was neither fit to be proposed to the people as a rule of manners, nor to be used in the church as a means of instruction; and that the gospel alone was to be inculcated and explained, both in the churches and in the schools of learning. followers of Agricola were called Antinomians, i. e. enemies of the law. But the fortitude, vigilarace and credit of Luther suppressed this sect in its very infancy, and Agricola, intimidated by the opposition of such a respectable adversary, acknowledged and renounced his pernicious systerm. But this recantation does not seem to have been sincere; since it is said, that when his fears were dispelled by the death of Luther, he returnto his errors, and gained proselytes to his extra vagant doctrine [o].

XXVI. The tenets of the Antinomians, if their The docversaries are to be believed, were of the most Agricula noxious nature and tendency; for they are sup-examined. Posed to have taught the loosest and most dissolute doctrine in point of morals, and to have maintained, that it was allowable to follow the pulse of every passion, and to transgress withreluctance, the divine law, provided the trans-Exessor laid hold on Christ, and embraced his reits by a lively faith. Such, at least, is the presentation that is generally given of their doctrine; but it ought not to be received with too much credulity. For whoever looks into this Vol. IV. Y matter

<sup>[</sup>o] See Caspar. Sagittarius Introduct. ad Histor. Ecclesiast.

m. i. p. 838.—Bayle Dictionnaire, tom. ii. at the article Isbius.—Conr. Schlusselburgii Catalog. Hæret. lib. iv.—G.
raold. Kirchen und Ketzer Historie, p. 813.

CENT. matter with attention and impartiality, will soon XVI. Sect.III. be persuaded, that such an absurd and impious PARTIL doctrine is unjustly laid to the charge of Agriculture COLA, and that the principal fault of this

cola, and that the principal fault of this presumptuous man lay in some harsh and inaccurate expressions, that were susceptible of dangerous and pernicious interpretations. By the term law he understood the Ten Commandments, promulgated under the Mosaic dispensation; and he considered this law as enacted for the Jews, and not for Christians. He explained, at the same time, the term Gospel (which he considered as substituted in the place of the law) in its true and extensive sense, as comprehending not only the doctrine of the merits of Christ rendered salutary by faith, but also the sublime precepts of holiness and virtue, delivered by the divine Saviour as rules of obe-dience. If, therefore, we follow the intention of AGRICOLA, without interpreting, in a rigorous manner, the uncouth phrases and improper expressions he so frequently and so injudiciously employed, his doctrine will plainly amount to this:

"That the Ten Commandments, published during the ministry of Moses, were chiefly designed " for the Jews, and on that account might be lawfully neglected and laid aside by Christians: "and that it was sufficient to explain with perspicuity, and to enforce with zeal, what "Christ and his apostles had taught in the "New Testament, both with respect to the means of grace and salvation, and the obliga-"tions of repentance and virtue." The greatest part of the doctors of this century are chargeable with a want of precision and consistency in expressing their sentiments; hence their real sentiments have been misunderstood, and opinions have been imputed to them which they never entertained.

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#### The Second Period.

XXVII. AFTER the death of Luther, which CENT. happened in the year 1546, Philip Melancthonszer IIL was placed at the head of the Lutheran doctors. PARTIL The merit, genius, and talents of this new chief Debates were, undoubtedly, great and illustrious; though that arose it must at the same time, be confessed, that he second pewas inferior to Luther in many respects [p], riod of the and more especially in courage, stedfastness, and Lutheran church, bepersonal authority. His natural temper was soft tween the and flexible; his love of peace almost excessive; death of and his apprehensions of the displeasure and re-that of Mesentment of men in power were such as betrayed lancthen. a pusillanimous spirit. He was ambitious of the esteem and friendship of all with whom he had any intercourse, and was absolutely incapable of employing the force of threatenings, or the restraints of fear, to suppress the efforts of religious faction, to keep within due bounds the irregular love of novelty and change, and to secure to the ehurch the obedience of its members. It is also to be observed, that Melancthon's sentiments, on some points of no inconsiderable moment, were entirely different from those of LUTHER; and it may not be improper to point out the principal subjects on which they adopted different ways of

In the *first* place, Melancthon was of opinion, that, for the sake of peace and concord, many Y 2 things

thinking.

wany respects in which Dr Mosheim affirms that Luther was superior to Melancthon. For if the single article of courage, and firmness of mind be excepted, I know no other respect in which Melancthon is not superior, or at least equal, to Luther. He was certainly his equal in piety and virtue, and much his superior in learning, judgment, meckness, and humanity.

CENT. things might be connived at and tolerated in the XVI. church of Rome, which Luther considered as absence. III solutely insupportable. The former carried so far the spirit of toleration and indulgence, as to discover no reluctance against retaining the ancient form of ecclesiastical government, and submitting to the dominion of the Roman pontif, on certain conditions, and in such a manner, as might be without prejudice to the obligation and authority of all those truths that are clearly revealed in the holy scriptures.

A second occasion of a diversity of sentiments between these two great men was furnished by the tenets which Luther maintained in opposition to the doctrines of the church of Rome. were his ideas concerning faith, as the only cause of salvation, concerning the necessity of good works to our final happiness, and man's natural incapacity of promoting his own conversion. In avoiding the corrupt notions which were embraced by the Roman catholic doctors on these important points of theology, Luther seemed, in the judgment of Melancthon, to lean too much towards the opposite extreme [q]. Hence the latter inclined to think, that the sentiments and expressions of his colleague required to be somewhat mitigated, lest they should give a handle to dangerous abuses, and be perverted to the propagation of pernicious errors.

It may be observed, thirdly, that though Melancthon adopted the sentiments of Luther in relation

Justification by Faith to such an excessive length, as seemed, though perhaps contrary to his intention, to derogate not only from the necessity of good works, but even from their obligation and importance. He would not allow them to be considered either as the conditions or means of salvation, nor even as a preparation for receiving it.

relation to the eucharist [r], yet he did not con-C E N T. Sider their controversy with the divines of Swit-Sect.III. zerland on that subject, as a matter of sufficient P A R T II. moment to occasion a breach of church-communion and fraternal concord, between the contending parties. He thought that this happy concord might be easily preserved by expressing the doctrine of the eucharist, and Christ's presence in that ordinance, in general and ambiguous terms, which the two churches might explain according to their respective systems.

Such were the sentiments of Melancthon, which, though he did not entirely conceal during the life of Luther, he delivered, nevertheless, with great circumspection and modesty, yielding always to the authority of his colleague, for whom he had a sincere friendship, and of whom also he stood in awe. But no sooner were the eyes of Luther closed, than he inculcated with the greatest plainness and freedom, what he had before only hinted at with timorousness and caution.

[r] It is somewhat surprising to hear Dr Mosheim affirming that Melancthon adopted the sentiments of Luther in relation to the eucharist, when the contrary is well known. is true, in the writings of Melancthon, which were published before the year 1529, or 1530, there are passages, which shew that he had not, as yet, thoroughly examined the controversy relating to the nature of Christ's presence in the eucharist. is also true, that during the disputes carried on between Westphal and Calvin, after the death of Luther, concerning the real presence, he did not declare himself in an open manner for either side (which, however, is a presumptive proof of his leaning to that of Calvin), but expressed his sorrow at these divisions, and the spirit of animosity by which they were inflamed. But whoever will be at the pains to read the letters of Melancthon to Calvin upon this subject, or those extracts of them that are collected by Hospinian, in the second volume of his Historia Sacramentaria, p. 428. will be persuaded, that he looked upon the doctrine of Consubstantiation not only as erroneous, but even as idolatrous; and that nothing but the fear of inflaming the present divisions, and of not being seconded, prevented him from declaring his sentiments openly. See also Dictionnaire de Bayle, art. MELANCTHON, note L.

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EENT. tion. The eminent rank Melancthon held a-SECT. III. mong the Lutheran doctors rendered this bold PARTIL manner of proceeding extremely disagreeable to many. His doctrine accordingly was censured and opposed; and thus the church was deprived of

the tranquillity it had enjoyed under LUTHER, and exhibited an unhappy scene of animosity, conten-

tion, and discord.

The adiaphoristic controversy, or the dispute concerning matters of ent nature.

XXVIII. The rise of these unhappy divisions must be dated from the year 1548, when CHARLES V. attempted to impose upon the Germans the famous edict, called the Interim. Maurice, the new elector of Saxony, desirous to an indiffer- know how far such an edict ought to be respected in his dominions, assembled the doctors of Wittemberg and Leipsic in the last mentioned city, and proposed this nice and critical subject to their serious examination. Upon this occasion Melancthon, complying with the suggestions of that lenity and moderation that were the great and leading principles in the whole course of his. duct and actions, declared it as his opinion, that, in matters of an indifferent nature, compliance was due to the imperial edicts [s]. But in the class of matters indifferent, this great man and his associates placed many things which had appeared of the highest importance to LUTHER, and could not, of consequence, be considered as indifferent by his true disciples [t]. For he regarded

> [s] The piece in which Melancthon and his associates delivered their sentiments relating to things indifferent, is commonly called in the German language, Das Leipziger Interim, and was republished at Leipsic in 1721, by Biekius, in a work entitled, Das dreyfache Interim.

> [/] If they only are the true disciples of Luther, who submit to his judgment, and adopt his sentiments in theological matters, many doctors of that communion, and our historian among the rest, must certainly be supposed to have forfeited that title, as will abundantly appear hereafter. Be that as it may, Melancthon can scarcely, if at all, be justified in placing

as such, the doctrine of justification by faith alone; CENT. the necessity of good works to eternal salvation; the SECT III. number of the sacraments; the jurisdiction claimed PARTIL by the pope and the bishops; extreme unction; the observation of certain religious festivals, and several superstitious rites and ceremonies. Hence arose that violent scene of contention and discord, that was commonly called the Adiaphoristic [2] controversy, which divided the church during many years, and proved highly detrimental to the progress of the Reformation. The defenders of the primitive doctrines of Lutheranism, with Flacius at their head, attacked with incredible bitterness and fury the doctors of Wittemberg and Leipsic, and particularly Melancthon, by whose counsel and influence every thing relating to the Interim had been conducted, and accused them of apostacy from the true religion. LANCTHON, on the other hand, seconded by the zeal of his friends and disciples, justified his conduct with the utmost spirit and vigour [w]. this unlucky debate the two following questions were principally discussed: First, whether the matter that seemed indifferent to Melancthon were so in reality? This his adversaries obstinately denied [x]. Secondly, whether, in things of an indifferent nature, and in which the interests of religion are

placing in the class of things indifferent the doctrines relating to faith and good works, which are the fundamental points of the Christian religion, and, if I may use such an expression, the very binges on which the gospel turns.

In [u] This controversy was called Adiaphoristick; and Melancthon and his followers Adiaphorists, from the Greek word

usumpogos, which signifies indifferent.

[w] Schlussenburgi Catalog. Hæreticor. lib. xiii.—Arnold's German work, entitled, Kirchen und Ketzer Historie, lib. xvi. cap. xxvi. p. 816.—Salig. Histor. Aug. Confess. vol. i. p. 611.

The German work, entitled, Unschuldige Nachrichten, A. 2702, p. 339. 393.—Luc. Osiandri Epitome Histor. Eccles. Centur. xvi. p. 502.

See above, note [1].

CENT. are not essentially concerned, it be lawful to yield SECT: 11. to the enemies of the truth?

XXIX. This debate concerning things indif-PARTII A contro- ferent became, as might well have been expected, versy set on a fruitful source of other controversies, which were equally detrimental to the tranquillity of the foot by George Major, con-church, and to the cause of the Reformation. cerning the The first to which it gave rise was the warm disnecessity of pute concerning the necessity of good works, that good was carried on with such spirit against the rigid works. Lutherans, by George Major, an eminent teacher of theology at Wittemberg, Melancthon had long been of opinion, that the necessity of good works, in order to the attainment of evertasting salvation, might be asserted and taught, as conformable to the truths revealed in the gospel; and both he and his colleagues declared this to be their opinion, when they were assembled at Leipsic, in the year 1548, to examine the famous edict already mentioned [y]. This declaration was severely censured by the rigid disciples of LUTHER, 28 contrary to the doctrine and sentiments of their chief, and as conformable both to the tenets and interests of the church of Rome; but it found an able defender in Major, who, in the year 1552, maintained the necessity of good works against the extravagant assertions of Amsdorf. Hence arose a new controversy between the rigid and moderate Lutherans, which was carried on with that keenness and animosity, that were peculiar to all debates of a religious nature during this century. In the course of this warm debate, Amsdorf was so far transported and infatuated by his excessive zeal for the doctrine of Luther, as to maintain, that good works were an impediment to salvation; from which imprudent and odious expression the flame of controversy received new fuel, and broke

forth

forth with redoubled fury. On the other hand, CENT. MAJOR complained of the malice or ignorance of SUCT. III. his adversaries, who explained his doctrine in a PART II. manner quite different from that in which he intended it should be understood; and, at length, he renounced it entirely, that he might not appear fond of wrangling, or be looked upon as a disturber of the peace of the church. This step did not, however, put an end to the debate, which was still carried on, until it was terminated at last by the Form of Concord [2].

XXX. From the same source that produced the The syneral dispute concerning the necessity of good works, gistical arose the synergistical controversy. The Syner-sygists [a], whose doctrine was almost the same with that of the Semi-pelagians, denied that God was the only agent in the conversion of sinful man; and affirmed, that man co-operated with divine grace in the accomplishment of this salutary purpose. Here also Melancthon renounced the doctrine of Luther; at least, the terms he employs, in expressing his sentiments concerning this intricate subject, are such as Luther would have rejected with horror; for in the conference at Leipsic, already mentioned, the former of these great men did not scruple to affirm, that God drew to himself, and converted adult persons in such a manner, that the powerful impression of bis grace was accompanied with a certain correspondent action of their will. The friends and disciples of Melancthon adopted this manner of speaking, and used the expressions

[2] Schlussenburg, lib. vii. Catal. Hæreticor.—Arnoldi Hist. Ecclesice, lib. xvi. cap. xxvii. p. 822.—Jo. Musæi Prælection. in Form. Concord. p. 181.—Arn. Grevii Memoria Joh. Westphali, p. 166.

[a] As this controversy turned upon the co-operation of the human will with the divine grace, the persons, who maintained this joint agency, were called Synergists, from a Greek word (συνεργια), which signifies co-operation.

CENT. of their master to describe the nature of the di-SECT. III. vine agency in man's conversion. But this re-PART II. presentation of the matter was far from being agreeable to the rigid Lutherans. They looked upon it as subversive of the true and genuine doctrine of LUTHER, relating to the absolute servitude of the human will [b], and the total inability of man to do any good action, or to bear any part in his own conversion; and hence they opposed the Synergists, or Semi-pelagians, with the utmost animosity and bitterness. The principal champions in this theological conflict were Sirigelius who defended the sentiments of Melancthon with singular dexterity and perspicuity, and Flacius, who maintained the ancient doctrine of Lu-THER: of these doctors, as also the subject of their debate, a farther account will be given presently [c].

Flacius, by
his intentions my was founded at Jena by the dukes of Saxeperate zeal, Weimar, the sons of the famous John Frederick,
my divisions whose unsuccessful wars with the emperor Charles
in the
church.

V. had involved him in so many calamities, and
deprived him of his electorial dominions. The

deprived him of his electorial dominions. The noble founders of this academy, having designed it for the bulwark of the protestant religion, as it was taught and inculcated by LUTHER, were particularly careful in choosing such professors and

divines as were remarkable for their attachment

to

[b] The doctrines of absolute predestination, irresistible grace, and human impotence, were never carried to a more excessive length, nor maintained with a more virulent obstinacy, by any divine, than they were by Luther. But in these times he has very few followers in this respect, even among those that bear his name. But of this more hereafter.

[c] See Schlussenburg Catal. Hæreticer. lib. v.—G. Arnold. Histor. Eccles. lib. xvi. cap. xxviii. p. 826.—Bayle Diction-maire, at the article Synergistes.—Salig. Histor. August. Confess. vol. iii. p. 474. 587. 880.—Musæi Prælict. in Formulam Concordiæ, p. 88.

### CHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran Church.

to the genuine doctrine of that great reformer, CENT. and their aversion to the sentiments of those mo-SECT. IIL derate Lutherans, who had attempted, by cer-Part tain modifications and corrections, to render it less harsh and disgusting. And as none of the Lutheran doctors were so eminent, on account of their uncharitable and intemperate zeal for this ancient doctrine, as MATTHEW FLACIUS, the virulent enemy of Melancthon, and all the Philippists, he was appointed, in the year 1557, professor of divinity at Jena. The consequences of this nomination were, indeed, deplorable. For this turbulent and impetuous man, whom nature had formed with an uncommon propensity to foment divisions and propagate discord, did not only revive all the ancient controversies that had distracted the church, but also excited new debates; and sowed, with such avidity and success, the seeds of contention between the divines of Weimar and those of the electorate of Saxony, that a fatal schism in the Lutheran church was apprehended by many of its wisest members [d]. And, indeed, this schism would have been inevitable, if the machinations and intrigues of Flacius had produced the desired effect. For, in the year 1559, he persuaded the dukes of Saxe-Weimar to order a refutation of the errors that had crept into the Lutheran church, and particularly of those that were imputed to the followers of MELANCTHON. to be drawn up with care, to be promulgated by authority, and to be placed among the other religious edicts and articles of faith that were in force in their dominions. But this pernicious design of dividing the church proved abortive; for the other Lutheran princes, who acted from the true

<sup>[</sup>d] See the famous letter of Augustus, elector of Saxony, concerning Flacius and his malignant attempts, which is published by Arn. Grevius in his Memoria Job. Westphali, 393.

CENT and genuine principles of the Reformation, dis-XVI. approved of this seditious book, from a just ap-PART II prehension of its tendency to increase the present troubles, and to augment instead of diminishing, the calamities of the church [e].

The contest between Flacius and Strigelius.

XXXII. This theological incendiary kindled the flame of discord and persecution even in the church of Saxe-Weimar, and in the university of Jena, to which he belonged, by venting his fury against Strigelius [f], the friend and disciple of This moderate divine adopted. Melancthon. in many things, the sentiments of his master, and maintained, particularly, in his public lectures. that the human will, when under the influence of the divine grace leading it to repentance, was not totally unactive, but bore a certain part in the salutary work of its conversion. In consequence of this doctrine, he was accused by Flacius of Synergism at the court of Saxe-Weimar; and by the order of the prince was cast into prison, where he was treated with severity and rigour. He was at length delivered from this confinement in the year 1562, and allowed to resume his former vocation, in consequence of a declaration, of his real sentiments, which, as he alleged, had been great-ly misrepresented. This declaration, however, did not either decide or terminate the controversy; since Strigelius seemed rather to conceal his erroneous sentiments [g] under ambiguous expressions, than to renounce them entirely. And indeed he was so conscious of this himself, that to avoid being involved in new calamities and perse-

[f] See the writers cited in the preceding notes; and also

Bayle's Dictionary, at the article STRIGELIUS.

<sup>[</sup>e] Salig. Historia August. Confess. vol. iii. p. 476.

<sup>[</sup>g] The sentiments of Strigelius were not, I have reason to believe, very erroneous in the judgment of Dr Mosheim, nor are they such in the estimation of the greatest part of the Lutheran doctors at this day.

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persecutions, he retired from Jena to Leipsic, and CENT from Leipsic to Heidelberg, where he spent the XVI remainder of his days; and appeared so unsettled PARTIL in his religious opinions, that it is really doubtful whether he is to be placed among the followers of Luther or Calvin.

XXXIII. The issue, however, of this con-some partroversy, which Flacius had kindled with such the dispute an intemperate zeal, proved highly detrimental carried on to his own reputation and influence in particular, by Flacius as well as to the interests of the Lutheran church Weimar. in general. For while this vehement disputant was assailing his adversary with an inconsiderate ardour, he exaggerated so excessively the sentiments, which he looked upon as orthodox, as to maintain an opinion of the most monstrous and detestable kind; an opinion which made him appear, even in the judgment of his warmest friends, an odious heretic, and a corrupter of the true re-In the year 1560, a public dispute was held at Weimar, between him and Strigelius, concerning the natural powers and faculties of the human mind, and their influence in the conversion and conduct of the true Christian. In this conference the latter seemed to attribute to unassisted nature too much, and the former too little. one looked upon the fall of man as an event that extinguished in the human mind, every virtuous tendency, every noble faculty, and left nothing behind it but universal darkness and corruption. The other maintained, that this degradation of the powers of nature was by no means universal or entire; that the will retained still some propensity to worthy pursuits, and a certain degree of activity that rendered it capable of attainments in virtue. Strigelius, who was well acquainted with the wiles of a captious philosophy, proposed to defeat his adversary by puzzling him, and addressed to him with that view, the following question:

CENT. question: Whether original sin, or the corrupt habit SECT. III. which the human soul contracted by the fall, is to be PARTIL placed in the class of Substances or Accidents?

Flacius answered with unparalleled imprudence

and temerity, that it belonged to the former; and maintained, to his dying hour, this most extravagant and dangerous proposition, that original sin is the very substance of human noture. Nay, so invincible was the obstinacy with which he persevered in this strange doctrine, that he chose to renounce all worldly honours and advantages rather than depart from it. It was condemned by the greatest and soundest part of the Lutheran church, as a doctrine that bore no small affinity to that of the Manichæans. But, on the other hand, the merit, erudition, and credit of Flacius procured him many respectable patro and able defenders among the most learned doctors of the church, who embraced his sentiments, and maintained his cause with the greatest spirit and zeal; of whom the most eminent were CYRIAC Spangenberg, Christopher Irenæus, and Cæ-LESTINE [b].

The conse-**ESSABUT** that arose from the of Flacius.

XXXIV. It is scarcely possible to imagine how much the Lutheran church suffered from this new dispute in all those places where its contagion had improdence reached, and how detrimental it was to the progress of Lutheranism among those who still adhered to the religion of Rome. For the flame of discord spread far and wide; it was communicated even to those churches which were erected in

<sup>[</sup>b] Schlussenburg. Catalog. Hæreticor. lib. ii.—The Life of Flacius, written in German by Ritter, and published in 8vo at Francfort, in the year 1725 .- Salig. Histor. Aug. Confession, vol. iii. p. 593 .- Arnoldi Histor. Ecclesiast. lib. xvi. cap. xxix. p. 829.—Musæi Prælect. in Formul. Concordiæ, p. 29. -Jo. Georgii Leuckfeldii Historia Spangenbergensis.-For : particular account of the dispute, that was held publicly at Weimar, see the German work entitled, Unschuld Nachricht, p. 383.

### CHAP. L. The History of the Lutheran Church.

in popish countries, and particularly in the Au-CENT strian territories, under the gloomy shade of as x v i. dubious toleration; and it so animated the Lu-PARTIL theran pastors, though surrounded on all sides by their cruel adversaries, that they could neither be restrained by the dictates of prudence, nor by the sense of danger [i]. Many are of opinion, that an ignorance of philosophical distinctions and definitions threw Flacius inconsiderately into the extravagant hypothesis he maintained with such obstinacy, and that his greatest heresy was no more than a foolish attachment to an unusual term. But Flacius seems to have fully refuted this plea in his behalf, by declaring boldly, in several parts of his writings, that he knew perfectly well the philosophical signification and the whole energy of the word substance, and was by no means ignorant of the consequences that would be drawn from the doctrine he had embraced  $\lceil k \rceil$ . Be that as it may, we cannot but wonder at the senseless and excessive obstinacy of this turbulent man, who chose rather to sacrifice his fortune, and disturb the tranquillity of the church, than to abandon a word, which was entirely foreign to the subject in debate, and renounce an hypothesis, that was composed of the most palpable contradictions.

XXXV. The

[i] See a German work of Bern. Raupach, entitled, Zwiefache Zugabe zu dem Evangelisch. Oesterrich. p. 25. 29. 32. 34. 43. 64. The same author speaks of the friends of Flacius in Austria; and particularly of Irenæus, in his Presbyterol. Austriace, p. 69.—For an account of Cælestine, see the German work mentioned at the end of the preceding note.

[k] This will appear evident to such as will be at the pains to consult the letters which Westphal wrote to his friend Flacins, in order to persuade him to abstain from the use of the word substance, with the answers of the latter. These Lettere and Answers are published by Arnold Grevius, in his Me-

moria Jo. Westphali, p. 186.

CENT. XXXV. The last controversy that we shall putes kindied by Osiander.

SECT. III. mention, of those that were occasioned by the PARTICEXCESSIVE lenity of MELANCTHON, was set on foot by Osiander, in the year 1549, and produced win-much discord and animosity in the church. Hade its first founder been yet alive, his influence and authority would have suppressed in their birththese wretched disputes; nor would Osiander,
who despised the moderation of Melancthon,
have dared either to publish or defend his crude
and chimerical opinions within the reach of LUTHER. Arrogance and singularity were the principal lines in OSIANDER's character, he loved to strike out new notions; but his views seemed always involved in an intricate obscurity. The disputes that arose concerning the Interim, induced him to retire from Nuremberg, where he had exercised the pastoral charge, to Konigsberg, where he was chosen professor of divinity. In this new station he began his academical functions, by propagating notions concerning the Divine Image, and the nature of Repentance, very different from the doctrine that LUTHER had taught on these interesting subjects; and, not contented with this deviation from the common track, he thought proper, in the year 1550, to introduce considerable alterations and corrections into the doctrine that had been generally received in the Lutheran church, with respect to the means of our justification before God. When we examine his discussion of this important point, we shall find it much more easy to perceive the opinions he rejected, than to understand the system he had invented or adopted; for, as was but too usual in this age, he not only expressed his notions in an obscure manner, but seemed moreover perpetually in contradiction with himself. His doctrine, however, when carefully examined, will appear to amount to the following propositions: "Christ, " considered

onsidered in his buman nature only, could not, CENT.

by his obedience to the divine law, obtain sect. III. " Justification and pardon for sinners; neither can PARTII. we be justified before God by embracing and pplying to ourselves, through faith, the right-" cousness and obedience of the man Christ. It is " only through that eternal and essential right-" cousness, which dwells in Christ considered as " God, and which resides in his divine nature, " that is united to the human, that mankind can " • btain complete justification. Man becomes a " partaker of this divine righteousness by faith; " since it is in consequence of this uniting prin-" ciple that Christ dwells in the heart of man, " with his divine righteousness dwells, there God " can behold no sin, and therefore, when it is "present with Christin the hearts of the regener-" ate, they are, on its account, considered by the \* Deity as righteous, although they be sinners. " Moreover, this divine and justifying righteousness " of Christ excites the faithful to the pursuit of • holiness, and to the practice of virtue." doctrine was zealously opposed by the most eminent doctors of the Lutheran church, and, in a more especial manner, by Melancthon and his colleagues. On the other hand, OSIANDER and his sentiments were supported by persons of considerable weight. But, upon the death of this ngid and fanciful divine, the flame of controverwas cooled, and dwindled by degrees into nothing [1.] Z XXXVI. The

[1] See Schlusselburgii Catalogus Hæreticor. lib. vi.— Arnoldi Histor. Eccles. lib. xvi. cap. xxiv. p. 804.—Christ. Hartknoch. Preussische Kirchen-Historie, p. 309.—Salig. Historia August. Confession, tom. ii. p. 922. The judgment that was formed of this controversy by the divines of Wittemterg, may be seen in the German work entitled, Unichu. dige Vol. IV. Z. Nachrichten,

XXXVI. The doctrine of Osiander, concern-CENT. SECT. JIJ. ing the method of being justified before God, ap-PARTIL peared so absurd to STANCARUS, professor of Hebrew at Konigsberg, that he undertook to refute bates excit. it. But while this turbulent and impetuous doced by Stan- tor was exerting all the vehemence of his zeal against the opinion of his colleague, he was hurried, by his violence, into the opposite extreme, and fell into an hypothesis, that appeared equally groundless, and not less dangerous in its tendency and consequences. OSIANDER had maintained, that the man Christ, in his character of moral agent, was obliged to obey, for bimself, the divine law, and therefore could not, by the imputation of this obedience, obtain righteousness or justification for others. From hence he concluded, that the Saviour of the world had been empowered, not by his character as man, but by his nature as God, to make expiation for our sins, and reconcile us to the favour of an offended Deity. STANCARUS, on the other hand, excluded entirely Christ's divine nature from all concern in the satisfaction he made, and in the redemption he procured for offending mortals, and maintained, that the sacred office of a mediator between God and man belonged to Jesus, considered in his human. nature alone. Having perceived, however, that this doctrine exposed him to the enmity of many divines, and even rendered him the object of popular resentment and indignation; he retired from Konigsberg into Germany, and from thence Poland,

Nachrichten, p. 141. and that of the doctors of Copenhagen, in der Dänischen Bibliothec. part. vii. p. 150. where there is an ample list of the writings published on this subject.—To form a just idea of the insolence and arrogance of Osiander, those who understand the German language will do well to consult Hischius, Nuremberg Interims-Historie, p. 44. 59, 60, &c.

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Poland, where he excited no small commotions C E N T. [m], and where also he concluded his days in the S R C T. III. year 1574 [n].

PARTH.

XXXVII. All those who had the cause of The mevirtue, and the advancement of the Reformation theds that really at heart, looked with an impatient ardour were emfor an end to these bitter and uncharitable con-heal these tentions; and their desires of peace and concord divisions. in the church were still increased by their perceiving the industrious assiduity with which Rome turned these unhappy divisions to the advancement of her interests. But during the life of MELANCTHON, who was principally concerned in these warm debates, no effectual method could be found to bring them to a conclusion. The death of this great man, which happened in the year 1560, changed, indeed, the face of things, and enabled those who were disposed to terminate the present contests, to act with more resolu-Z 2 tion,

[m] See a German work of Chr. Hartknoch, entitled, Preussische Kirken geschichte, p. 340.—Schlusselburgii Catalog. Hæreticor. lib. ix.—Dictionaire du Bayle, at the article Stancarus.—Before the arrival of Stancarus at Konigsberg, in the year 1548, he had lived for some time in Switzerland, where also he had occasioned religious disputes; for he adopted several doctrines of Luther, particularly that concerning the virtue and efficacy of the sacraments, which were rejected by the Swiss and Grisons. See the Musæum Helveticum, tom. v. p. 484. 490, 491. For an account of the disturbances he occasioned in Poland in 1556. see Bullinger, in Jo. Conr. Fueslini Centuria I. Epistelar à Reformator. Helvetic. scriptor. p. 371. 459.

of his hypothesis, was this, that, if Christ was mediator by his divine nature only, then it followed evidently, that even considered as God, he was inferior to the Father; and thus, according to him, the doctrine of his adversary Osiander led directly to the Unitarian system. This difficulty, which was presented with great subtilty, engaged many to strike into a middle road, and to maintain, that both the divine and human natures of Christ were immediately concerned in the work of Redemption.

C E N T. tion, and a surer prospect of success, than had ac-xvi. Secr. 111. companied their former efforts. Hence it was, PARTIL that after several vain attempts, Augustus, elector of Saxony, and John William, duke of Saxe-Weimar, summoned the most eminent doctors of both the contending parties to meet at Alterburg in the year 1568, and there to propose, in an amicable manner, and with a charitable spirit, their respective opinions, that thus it might be seen how far a reconciliation was possible, and what was the most probable method of bringing it about. But the intemperate zeal and warmth of the disputants, with other unlucky circumstances, blasted the fruits that were expected from this conference [o]. Another method of restoring tranquillity and union among the members of the Lutheran church was therefore proposed; and this was, that a certain number of wise and moderate divines should be employed in composing a Form of doctrine, in which all the controversies, that divided the church, should be terminated and decided; and that this new compilation, as soon as it was approved of by the Lutheran princes and consistories, should be cloathed with ecclesiastical authority, and added to the symbolical [p] our standard-books of the Lutheran church. JAMES ANDREÆ, professor at Tubingen, whose theological abilities had procured him the most eminent and shining reputation, had been employed so early as the year 1569, in this critical and difficult undertaking, by the special command of the dukes of Wittemberg and Brunswick. The elector of Suxony [q], with several persons of distinction, embarked with these two princes in the project

[o] CASP. SAGITTARII Introductio ad Hist. Ecclesiastican.

part II. p. 1542.

[q] Augustus.

that signifies collection or compilation) the books which contains their articles of faith, and rules of discipline.

hey had formed; so that ANDREÆ, under the CENT.

Note that de of such a powerful protection and patronage, Secriff.

Retted all his zeal, travelled through different PARTIL.

PLITS of Germany, negociated alternately with

PLITS and synods, and took all the measures

Thich prudence could suggest, in order to render

Porm, that he was composing, universally ac
ptable.

XXXVIII. The persons embarked in this new Cryptocritical design, were persuaded that no time calvinists, Bht to be lost in bringing it into execution, or secret faen they perceived the imprudence and teme-of Calvinof the disciples of Melancthon, and the ism. manges they were attempting to introduce into doctrine of the church. For his son-in-law FUCER [r], who was a physician and professor of Lural philosophy at Wittemberg, together with the divines of Wittemberg and Leipsick, encouraged by the approbation, and relying on the credit, of Cracovius chancellor of Dresden, and of several ecclesiastics and persons of distinction at the Saxon court, aimed at nothing less than abolishing the doctrine of LUTHER concerning the eucharist and the person of Christ, with a design to substitute

[r] This Peucer, whom Dr Mosheim mentions without my mark of distinction, was one of the wisest, most amiable, and most learned men that adorned the annals of German literature during this century, as the well-known history of his life, and the considerable number of his medical, mathematical, moral, and theological writings, abundantly testify. Nor was he more remarkable for his merit than for his sufferings. his genius and virtues had rendered him the favourite of the elector of Saxony, and placed him at the head of the university of Wittemberg, he felt, in a terrible manner, the effects of the bigotry and barbarity of the rigid Lutherans, who, on account of his denying the corporal presence of Christ in the eucharist. united, with success, their efforts to deprive him of the favour of his sovereign, and procured his imprisonment. His confinement, which lasted ten years, was accompanied with all possible circumstances of severity. See MELCHIOR. ADAM, Vit. Medieor. Germanor.

the sentiments of Calvin in its place. This new

reformation

CENT reformation was attempted in Saxony in the year 1570, and a great variety of clandestine arts and PART II. stratagems were employed in order to bring it to a happy and successful issue. What the sentiments of Melancthon concerning the eucharist were towards the conclusion of his days, appears to be extremely doubtful. It is however certain, that he had a strong inclination to form a coalition between the Saxons and Calvinists, though he was prevented, by the irresolution and timidity of his natural character, from attempting openly this much desired union. Peucer, and the other disciples of Melancthon already mentioned, made a public profession of the doctrine of Calvin; and though they had much more spirit and courage than their soft and yielding. master, yet they wanted his circumspection and prudence, which were not less necessary to the accomplishment of their designs. Accordingly, in the year 1571, they published in the German language a work, entitled, Stereoma [s], and other writings, in which they openly declared their dissent from the doctrine of Luther concerning the Eucharist and the Person of Christ [1]; and that

[s] A term which signifies foundation.

usual accuracy. The authors of the book entitled Steresme, did not declare their dissent from the doctrine of Luther, but from the extravagant inventions of some of his successors. This great man, in his controversy with Zuingle, had indeed thrown out some unguarded expressions, that seemed to imply a belief of the omnipresence of the body of Christ; but he became sensible afterwards that this opinion was attended with great difficulties, and particularly, that it ought not to be made use of as a proof of Christ's corporal presence in the eucharist. But this absurd hypothesis was renewed, after the death of Luther, by Timman and Westphal, and was dressed up, in a still more specious

<sup>•</sup> Sce Lutheri opp. tom. viii. p. 375. Edit. Janiens.

### CHAP. I. The History of the Lutheran Church.

that they might execute their purposes with CENT. greater facility, introduced into the schools a Sect. III. Catechism, compiled by Pezelius, which was fapartile vourable to the sentiments of Calvin. As this bold step excited great commotions and debates in the church, Augustus held at Dresdan, in the year 1571, a solemn convocation of the Saxon divines, and of all other persons concerned in the administration of ecclesiastical affairs, and commanded them to adopt his opinion in relation to the eucharist [n]. The assembled doctors complied with this order in appearance; but their Z4 com-

specious and plausible form, by Brentius, Chemnitz, and Andreze, who maintained the communication of the properties of Christ's divinity to his human nature, in the manner that it was afterwards adopted by the Lutheran church. This strange system gave occasion to the book entitled Stereoma, in which the doctrine of Luther was respected, and the inventions alone of his successors renounced, and in which the author declared plainly that they did not adopt the sentiments of Zuingle or Calvin; nay, that they admitted the real and substantial presence of Christ's body and blood in the eucharist.

[u] In this passage, compared with what follows, Dr Mosheim seems to maintain, that the opinion of Augustus, which he imposed upon the assembled divines, was in favour of the adversaries of Melancthon, and in direct opposition to the authors of the Stercoma. But here he has committed a palpable oversight. The convocation of Dresden, in the year 1571, instead of approving or maintaining the doctrine of the rigid Lutherans, drew up, on the contrary, a form of agreement (formula consensus), in which the omnipresence, or ubiquity of Christ's body was denied, and which was, indeed, an abridgement of the book entitled, Stereoma. So that the transactions at Dresden were entirely favourable to the moderate Lutherans, who embraced openly and sincerely (and not by a feigned consent (subdole) as our historian remarks) the sentiment of the elector Augustus, who at that time patronized the disciples of Melancthon. This prince it is true, seduced by the crafty and artful insinuations of the Ubiquitarians, or rigid Lutherans, who made him believe that the ancient doctrines of the church were in danger, changed sides soon after, and was pushed on to the most violent and persecuting measures, of which the convocation of Torgaw was the first step, and the Form of Concord the anhappy issue.

CFNT compliance was feigned [w]; for, on their return XVI.

Srcr. III. to the places of their abode, they resumed their PARI II original design, pursued it with assiduity and zeal, and by their writings, as also by their public and private instructions, endeavoured to abolish the ancient doctrine of the Saxons, relating to the presence of Christ's body in that boly sacre-

and by their writings, as also by their public and private instructions, endeavoured to abolish the ancient doctrine of the Saxons, relating to the presence of Christ's body in that holy sacrament. The elector, informed of these proceedings, convened anew the Saxon doctors, and held, in the year 1574, the famous convocation of Torgaw [x], where, after a strict enquiry into the doctaines of those who, from their secret attachment to the sentiments of the Swiss divines, were called Crypto-Culvinists [y], he committed some of them to prison, sent others into banishment, and engaged a certain number by the force of the secular arm to change their sentiments. PEUCER, who had been principally concerned in moderating the rigour of some of Luther's doctrines, felt, in a more especial manner, the dreadful effects of the elector's severity. For he was confined to a hard prison, where he lay in the most affecting circumstances of distress until the year 1585, when, having obtained his liberty, through the intercession of the prince of Anhalt, who had given his daughter in marriage to Augustus, he retired

IF [w] The compliance was sincere, but the order was very different from that mentioned by our author; as appears from the preceding note.

[r] i. e. Hidden or disguised Calvinists.

Saxon doctors convened at Torgaw by the summons of the saxon doctors convened at Torgaw by the summons of the elector; a small number this to give law to the Lutheran church. For an account of the declaration drawn up by this assembly on the points relating to the presence of Christ's body in the eucharist, the omnipresence of that body, and the oral manducation of the flesh and blood of the Divine Saviour; see Hospiniani Concordia Discors, p. 39.

retired to Zerbst, where he ended his days in CENT.

XVI.

SECT. III.

XXXIX. The schemes of the Crypto-Calvinists, PART IL. or secret abettors of Calvinism, being thus dis-The form concerted, the elector of Saxony, and the other of concerd. princes who had entered into his views, redoubled their zeal and diligence in promoting the Form of Concord that has been already mentioned. cordingly, various conferences were held preparatory to this important undertaking; and, in the year 1576, while the Saxon divines were convened at Torgaw by the order of Augustus, a treatise was composed by James Andreæ, with a design to heal the divisions of the Lutheran church, and as a preservative against the opinions of the Reformed doctors [a]. This production, which received the denomination of the Book of Torgaw, from the place where it was composed, having been carefully examined, reviewed, and corrected, by the greatest part of the Lutheran doctors in Germany, the matter was again proposed to the deliberations of a select number of divines, who met at Berg, a Benedictine monastery in the neighbourhood of Magdeburg [b]. Here all things relating to the

p. 207. lib. iii. Præf. & p. 1—22. 52—57. 69. lib. iv. p. 246.
—HUTTERI Concordia Concors, cap. i—viii.—ARNOLDI Histor.

Ecclesiast. lib. xvi. cap. xxxii. p. 369—395.—Loscheri Historia motuum inter Lutheranos et Reformat. part II. p. 176.
part III. p. 1.—All these are writers favourable to the rigid Lutherans; see therefore, on the other side, Casp. Peuceri Historia Carcerum et Liberationis Divinæ, which was published in Svo at Zurich, in the year 1605, by Pezelius.

Protestants of various denominations from the Lutherans; and it is equally applied to the friends of episcopacy and presbytery.

See the following chapter.

associates at Torgaw, was sent, by the elector of Saxony, to almost all the Lutheran princes, with a view of its being examined, approved, and received by them. It was, however, rejected

CENT-intended project were accurately weighed, the SECT. III. opinions of the assembled doctors carefully dis-PARTIL cussed, and the result of all was the famous Form of Concord, which has made so much noise in the world. The persons who assisted ANDREE in the composition of this celebrated work, or at least in the last perusal of it at Berg, were MARTIN CHEMNITZ, NICOLAS SELNECCER, ANDREW MUSculus, Christopher Cornerus, and David CHYTRÆUS [c]. This new confession of the Lutheran faith was adopted first by the Saxons, in consequence of the strict order of Augustus; and their example was afterwards followed by the greatest part of the Lutheran churches, by some sooner, by others later  $\lceil d \rceil$ . The authority of this confession,

rejected by several princes, and censured and refuted by several doctors. These censures engaged the compilers to review and correct it; and it was from this book, thus changed and new modelled, that the Form of Concord, published at Berg,

was entirely drawn.

IF [c] The Form of Concord, composed at Torgaw, and reviewed at Berg, consists of two parts. In the first is contained a system of doctrine, drawn up according to the fancy of the six doctors here mentioned. In the second is exhibited one of the strongest instances of that persecuting and tyrannical spirit, which the protestants complained of in the church of Rome, even a formal condemnation of all those who differed from these six doctors, particularly in their strange opinions concerning the majesty and omnipresence of Christ's body, and the real manducation of his flesh and blood in the eucharist. This condemnation branded with the denomination of heretics, and excluded from the communion of the church, all Christians, of all nations, who refused to subscribe these doctrines. More particularly in Germany, the terrors of the sword were solicited against these pretended heretics, as may be seen in the famous testament of Brentius. For a full account of the Confession of Torgaw and Berg, see Hospinian's Concordia discors, where the reader will find large extracts out of this confession, with an ample account of the censures it underwent, the opposition that was made to it, and the arguments that were used by its learned adversaries.

[d] A list of the writers, who have treated concerning the Form of Concord, may be found in Jo. GEORG. WALCHII In-

confession, as is sufficiently known, was employed C E N T. XVI. for the two following purposes, first, to terminate S C T. NL. the controversies, which divided the Lutheran PARTIL church, more especially after the death of its founder; and, secondly, to preserve that church against the opinions of the Reformed, in relation to the eucharist.

XL. It so fell out, however, that this very The Form Form, which was designed to restore peace and produces concord in the church, and had actually produced much disthis effect in several places, became nevertheless a source of new tumults, and furnished matter for the most violent dissentions and contests. immediately met with a warm opposition from the formed, or Reformed, and also from all those who were either Calvinists. secretly attached to their doctrine, or who, at least, were desirous of living in concord and communion with them, from a laudable zeal for the common interests of the protestant cause. Nor was their opposition at all unaccountable, since they plainly perceived, that this Form removed all the flattering hopes they had entertained, of seeing the divisions that reigned among the friends of religious liberty happily healed, and entirely excluded the Reformed from the communion of the Lutheran church. Hence they were filled with indignation against the authors of this new Confession

chert Biblioth. Theol. Symbolicae, p. 188. There are also several documents in MSS. relative to this famous confession, of which there is an account in the German work entitled, Uuschuld Nachricht. A. 1753. p. 322.—The principal writers who have given the history of the Form of Concord, and the transactions relating to it, are Hospinian, an eminent divine of Zurich, in his Concordia Discors; and Leon Hutter, in his Concordia Concors. These two historians have written on opposite sides, and whoever will be at the pains of comparing their accounts with attention and impartiality, will easily perceive where the truth lies, and receive satisfactory information with respect to the true state of these controversies, and the motives that animated the contending parties.

SECT.III. proceedings in writings full of spirit and vehe-PARTII mence. The Swiss doctors, with Hospinian at their head the Belgic divines [e] those of the

Palatinate [f], together with the principalities of Anhalt and Bade, declared war against the Form of Concord. And accordingly from this period the Lutheran, and more especially the Saxon doctors, were charged with the disagreeable task of defending this new Creed and its compilers, in ma-

ny laborious productions [g].

And even by the Lutherans themselves

XLI. Nor were the followers of Zuingle and Calvin the only opposers of this Form of Concord; it found adversaries, even in the very bosom of Lutheranism, and several of the most eminent churches of that communion rejected it with such firmness and resolution, that no arguments nor entreaties could engage them to admit it as a rule of faith, or even as a mean of instruction. It was rejected by the churches of Heisia, Pomerania, Nuremberg, Holstein, Silesia, Denmark, Brunswick, and others [b]. But though they all united in opposing

[e] See Petrii Vilfrii Epistola Apologetica Reformatarum in Belgio Ecclesiarum ad et contra Auctores Libri Bergensis dicti "Concordiæ."—This work was published a second time with the Annotations of Lud. Gerhard à Renesse, by the learned Dr Gerdes of Groningen, in his Scrinium Antiquarium seu Misc. llan. Groningens. Nov. tom. i. p. 121. Add to these the Unschuld. Nachricht, A. 1747. p. 957.

[f] JOHN CASIMIR, Prince Palatine, convoked an assembly of the Reformed divines at Frankfort, in the year 1577, in order to annul and reject this Form of Concord. See HEN. ALTIN-

GII Histor. Eccles. Palatin. sect. clxxix. p. 143.

[g] See Jo. GEORG. WALCHII Introd. in Libros Symbolicos

Lutheranor. lib. i. cap. vii. p. 734.

[b] For an account of the ill success the Form of Concord met with in the Dutchy of Holstein, see the German work entitled, Die Damsche Bibliothee, vol. iv. p. 212. vol. v. p. 355. vol. viii p. 333—461. vol. ix. p. 1.—Muhlii Dissert, Histor-Theol. Diss. I. de Reformat. Helsat. p. 108.—Arn. Grevit Miemeria Pauli ab Litzen. The transactions in Denmark in relation

It

opposing it, their opposition was nevertheless CENT. founded on different reasons, nor did they all act XVI. in this affair from the same motives and the same PARTIL principles. A warm and affectionate veneration for the memory of Melancthon was, with some, the only, or at least the predominant, motive that induced them to declare against the Form in question; they could not behold, without the utmost abhorrence, a production in which the sentiments of this great and excellent man were so rudely treated. In this class we may rank the Lutherans of holstein. Others were not only animated in their opposition by a regard for MELANC-THON, but also by a persuasion, that the opinions, condemned in the new Creed, were more conformable to truth, than those that were substituted in their place. A secret attachment to the sentiments of the Helvetic doctors prevented some from approving of the Form under consideration; the hopes of uniting the Reformed and Lutheran churches engaged many to declare against it; and a considerable number refused their assent to it from an apprehension, whether real or pretended, that adding a new Creed to the ancient confessions of faith would be really a source of disturbance and discord in the Lutheran church.

relation to this form, and the particular reasons for which it was rejected there may be seen in the Danish Library above quoted, vol. iv. p. 222.—282. and also in Ponteppidan's Annal. Eccles. Danica Diplomatici, tom. iii. p. 456. This latter author evidently proves (p. 476.) a fact which Herman ab Elswich, and other authors, have endeavoured to represent as dubious, viz. that Frederick II. king of Denmark, as soon as he received a copy of the form in question, threw it into the fire, and saw it consumed before his eyes.—The opposition that was made by the Hessians to the same form, may be seen in Tiele-Manni Vita Theologor. Marpurgens. p. 99. Danischen Bibliothec. vol. vii. p. 273—364, tom. ix. p. 1—87.—The ill fate of this famous Confession, in the principalities of Lignitz and Brieg, is amply related in the German work, entitled, Unschuld. Nachricht. A. 1745. p. 173.

CENT It would be endless to enumerate the different XVI.

SECT II. reasons alleged by the different individuals or PARTII communities, who declared their dissent from the Form of Concord.

The conduct of Julius, duke of Brunswick, in this matter.

XLII. This Form was patronized in a more especial manner by Julius, duke of Brunswick; to whom, in a great measure, it owed its existence, who had employed both his authority and munificence in order to encourage those who had undertaken to compose it, and had commanded all the ecclesiastics, within his dominions, to receive and subscribe it as a rule of faith. But scarcely was it published, when the zealous prince changed his mind, suffered the Form to be publicly opposed by Heshusius, and other divines of his university of Helmstadt, and to be excluded from the number of the Creeds and confessions that were received by his subjects. The reasons alleged by the Lutherans of Brunswick, in behalf of this step, were, 1st, That the Form of Concord, when printed, differed in several places from the manuscript copy to which they had given their approbation; 2dly, That the doctrine relating to the freedom of the buman will was expressed in it without a sufficient degree of accuracy and precision, and was also inculcated in the harsh and improper terms that Luther had employed in treating that subject: 3dly, That the ubiquity, or universal and indefinite presence of Christ's human nature, was therein positively maintained, notwithstanding that the Lutheran church had never adopted any such doctrine. Besides these reasons for rejecting the Form of Concord, which were publicly avowed, others perhaps of a secret nature contributed to the remarkable change, which was visible in the sentiments and proceedings of the duke of Brunswick. Various methods and negociations were employed to remove the dislike which this prince, and the divines that lived in his territories, had conceived

conceived against the Creed of Berg. Particu-CENT. larly in the year 1583, a convocation of divines Sectiff. from Saxony, Brandenburg, Brunswick, and the PARTH. Palatinate, was held at Quedlinburg for this purpose. But Julius persisted steadfastly in his opposition, and proposed that the Form of Concord should be examined, and its authority discussed by a general assembly or synod of the Lutheran church [i].

XLIII. This Form was not only opposed from The Crypto abroad, but had likewise adversaries in the very Calvinians country which gave it birth. For even in Saxony attempts to many, who had been obliged to subscribe it, be-spread held it with aversion, in consequence of their at-trine. tachment to the doctrine of Melancthon. During the life of Augustus, they were forced to suppress their sentiments; but as soon as he had paid the last tribute to nature, and was succeeded by Christian I. the moderate Lutherans and the secret Calvinists resumed their courage. The new elector had been accustomed, from his tender years, to the moderate sentiments of ME-LANCTHON, and is also said to have discovered a propensity to the doctrine of the Helvetic church. Under his government, therefore, a fair opportunity was offered to the persons abovementioned, of declaring their sentiments and executing their designs. Nor was this opportunity neglected. The attempts to abolish the Form of Concord, that had in time past proved unsuccessful, seemed again to be renewed, and that with a design to open

<sup>[</sup>i] See LEON. HUTTERI Concordia Concors, cap. xlv. p. 1051.—Phil. Jul. Richtmeyeri Braunschweig Kirchen Historie, part III. cap. viii. p. 483.—See also the authors mentioned by Christ. Matth. Praffius, in his Acta et Scripta Ecclesia Wurtemberg. p. 62. & Histor. Literar. Theologia, part II. p. 423.—For an account of the convocation of Quedlinburg, and the Acts that passed in that assembly, see the German work, entitled, Danische Bibliothec. part VIII. p. 595.

CENT. open a door for the entrance of Calvinism into XVI. Saxony. The persons who had embarked in this PARTIL design, were greatly encouraged by the protection they received from several noblemen of the first rank at the Saxon court, and, particularly, from Crellius, the first minister of Christian. Under the auspicious influence of such patrons it was natural to expect success; yet they conducted their affairs with circumspection and prudence. Certain laws were previously enacted, in order to prepare the minds of the people for the intended revolution in the doctrine of the church; and some time after [k] the form of exorcism was omitted in the administration of baptism [1]. These measures were followed by others still more alarming to the rigid Lutherans; for not only a new German Catechism, favourable to the purpose of the secret Calvinists; was industriously distributed among the people, but also a new edition of the Bible in the same language, enriched with the observations of HENRY SALMUTH, which were artfully accommodated to this purpose, was, in the year 1591, published at Dresden. The consequences of these vigorous measures were violent tumults and seditions among the people, which the magistrates endeavoured to suppress, by punishing with severity such of the clergy as distinguished themselves by their opposition

[k] In the year 1591.

[1] The custom of exorcising, or casting out evil spirits, was used in the fourth century at the admission of Catechumens, and was afterwards absurdly applied in the baptism of infants. This application of it was retained by the greatest part of the Lutheran churches. It was indeed abolished by the elector Christian I. but was restored after his death; and the opposition that had been made to it by Crellius was the chief reason of his unhappy end. See JUSTI. H. BOEHMERI Jus. Ecclesiast. Protestant. tom. iii. p. 843. Ed. Secund. Halæ 1727 .- As also a German work of MELCHIOR KRAFT, entitled, Geschichte des Exorcismi, p. 401.

plan of this religious revolution was, all of a sud-Sect. III. den, overturned by the unexpected death of Part II. Christian, which happened in the year 1591. Then the face of affairs changed again, and assumed its former aspect. The doctors, who had been principally concerned in the execution of this unsuccessful project, were committed to prison, or sent into banishment, after the death of the elector; and its chief encourager and patron Crellius suffered death in the year 1601, as the fruit of his temerity [m].

XLIV. Towards the conclusion of this centu- The dis-. ry, a new controversy was imprudently set on foot pute set on at Wittemberg, by Samuel Huber, a native of Huber. Switzerland, and professor of divinity in that university. The Calvinistical doctrine of absolute predestination and unconditional decrees was extremely offensive to this adventurous doctor, and even excited his warmest indignation. Accordingly he affirmed, and taught publicly, that all mankind were elected from eternity by the Supreme Being to everlasting salvation, and accused his colleagues in particular, and the Lutheran divines in general, of a propensity to the doctrine of Calvin, on account of their asserting, that the divine election was confined to those, whose faith, foreseen by an omniscient God, rendered them the proper objects of his redeeming mercy. The opinion of Huber, as is now acknowledged by many learned men, differed more in words than in reality, from the doctrine of the Lutheran church; for he did no more than explain in a new method, and with a different turn of phrase, Vol. IV. Aa what

<sup>[</sup>m] See the German work of Godf. Arnold, entitled, Kirchen-und Ketzer Historie, part II. book XVI. cap. xxxii. p. 863. As also the authors mentioned by ilerm. Ascan: Engelken, in his Dissertat. de Nic. Crellio, ejusque Supplicio, postochii, 1724, edit.

CENT. what that church had always taught concerning

XVI. the unlimited extent of the love of God, as em-PART II. bracing the whole human race, and excluding none by an absolute decree from everlasting salvation. However, as a disagreeable experience and repeated examples had abundantly shewn, that new methods of explaining or proving even received doctrines were as much adapted to excite divisions and contests, as the introduction of new errors. Huber was exhorted to adhere to the ancient method of proposing the doctrine of Election, and instead of his own peculiar forms of expression, to make use of those that were received and authorised by the church. This compliance, nevertheless, he refused to submit to, alleging, that it was contrary to the dictates of his conscience; while his patrons and disciples, in many places, gave several indications of a turbulent and seditious zeal for his cause. These considerations engaged the magistrates of Wittemberg to depose him from his office, and to send him into banishment [n].

The judgformed controversies.

XLV. The controversies, of which a succinct ment that account has now been given, and others of inferior ought to be moment, which it is needless to mention, were highcerning all ly detrimental to the true interest of the Lutherthese con- an church, as is abundantly known by all who are acquainted with the history of this century. It must also be acknowledged, that the manner of conducting and deciding these debates, the spirit of the disputants, and the proceedings of the judges, if we form our estimate of them by the sentiments that prevail among the wiser sort of men in modern times, must be considered as inconsistent with equity, moderation, and cha-It betrays, nevertheless, a want both of candour

<sup>[</sup>n] For an account of the writers that appeared in this controversy, see Christ. Matth. Piaffii Introductio in Histor-Luer. Tocologia, part II. lib. iii. p. 431.

candour and justice to inveigh indiscriminately CENT. against the authors of these misfortunes, and to re-SECT. III. present them as totally destitute of rational senti-PART II. ments and virtuous principles. And it is yet more unjust to throw the whole blame upon the triumphant party, while the suffering side are all fondly represented as men of unblemished virtue, and worthy of a better fate. It ought not certainly to be a matter of surprise, that persons long accustomed to a state of darkness, and suddenly transported from thence into the blaze of day, did not, at first, behold the objects that were presented to their view with that distinctness and precision that are natural to those who have long enjoyed the light. And such, really, was the case of the first protestant doctors, who were delivered from the gloom of papal superstition and tyranny. Besides, there was something gross and indelicate in the reigning spirit of this age, which made the people not only tolerate, but even applaud many things relating both to the conduct of life and the management of controversy, which the more polished manners of modern times cannot relish, and which, indeed, are by no means worthy of imitation. As to the particular motives or intentions that ruled each individual in this troubled scene of controversy, whether they acted from the suggestions of malice and resentment, or from an upright and sincere attachment to what they looked upon to be the truth, or how far these two springs of action were jointly concerned in their conduct, all this must be left to the decision of Him alone, whose privilege it is to search the heart, and to discern its most hidden intentions, and its most secret motives.

XLVI. The Lutheran church furnished, during The princtathis century, a long list of considerable doctors, pal doctors who illustrated, in their writings, the various of this century.

branches of theological science. After Luther tury.

CENT and Melancthon, who stand foremost in this list, XVI.

SECT. III. on account of their superior genius and erudition,

PARTIL we may select the following writers, as the most eminent, and as persons whose names are worthy to be preserved in the annals of literature; viz.

Weller, Chemnitz, Brentius, Flacius, Regius, Major, Amsdorf, Sarcerius, Mathesius, Wigandus, Lambertus, Andreæ, Chytræus, Salneccer, Bucer, Fagius, Cruciger, Strigelius, Spangenberg, Judex, Heshusius, Westphal, Æpinus, Osiander, and others [0].

## CHAP. II.

The History of the Reformed [p] Church.

The consti-I. THE nature and constitution of the Retution of the formed Church, which was formerly dechurch.

If the consti-I. The nature and constitution of the Retution of

[o] For an ample account of these Lutheran doctors, see Melchior. Adami Vitæ Theologorum, and Louis Elis Dupin Bibliotheque des Auteurs separés de la Communion de l'Eglise Romaine au xvii Siecle. The lives of several of these divines have been also separately composed by different authors of the present times; as for example, that of Weller by Læmelius, that of Flacius by Ritter, those of Heshusius and Spangenberg by Leuckfeldt, that of Fagius by Feverlin, that of Chytræus by Schutz, that of Bucer by Verportenius, those of Westphal and Æpinus by Arn. Grevius, &c.

[p] It has already been observed that the denomination of Reformed was given to those protestant churches which did not embrace the doctrine and discipline of Luther. The title was first assumed by the French protestants, and afterwards became the common denomination of all the Calvinistical churches on the continent. I say, on the continent; since in England the term Reformed is generally used as standing in opposition to popery alone. Be that as it may, this part of Dr Mosheim's work would have been perhaps, with more propriety, entitled, 'The History of the Reformed Churches,' than 'The History of the Reformed Church.' This will appear still more evident from the following note:

Zuingle and Calvin, is entirely different from CENT.

that of all other ecclesiastical communities. Every SECT. III.

other Christian church hath some common centre PART U.

of union, and its members are connected together

by some common bond of doctrine and discipline.

But this is far from being the case of the Reformed

church [q], whose several branches are neither

A a 3 united

[9] This and the following observations are designed to give the Lutheran church an air of unity, which is not to be found in the Reformed. But there is a real fallacy in this specious representation of things. The Reformed church, when considered in the true extent of the term reformed, comprehends all those religious communities that separated themselves from the church of Rome; and, in this sense, includes the Lutheran church, as well as the others. And even when this epithet is used in opposition to the community founded by Luther, it represents, not a single church, as the Episcopal, Presbyterian, or Independent, but rather a collection of churches; which, though they be invisibly united by a belief and profession of the fundamental doctrines of Christianity, yet frequent separate places of worship, and have each a visible centre of external union peouliar to themselves, which is formed by certain peculiarities in their respective rules of public worship and ecclesiastical government. I An attentive examination of the discipline, polity, and worship of the churches of England, Scotland, Holland, and Switzerland, will set this matter in the clearest light. The first of these churches being governed by bishops, and not admitting of the validity of presbyterian ordination, differs from the other three more than any of these differ from each other. There are, however, peculiarities of government and worship that distinguish the church of Holland from that of Scotland. The institution of deacons, the use of forms for the celebration of the sacraments, an ordinary form of prayer, the observation of the festivals of Christmas, Easter, Ascension-day, and Whitsuntide, are established in the Dutch church; and it is well known that the church of Scotland differs from it extremely in these respects .- But, after all, to what does the pretended uniformity among the Lutherans amount? are not some of the Lutheran churches governed by bishops, while others are ruled by elders? It shall moreover be shewn, in its proper place, that even in point of doctrine, the Lutheran churches are not so very remarkable for their uniformity.

\$ See the general sketch of the state of the church in the eighteenth ceneary, in the sixth volume, paragraph XXI. and note (y). CENT. united by the same system of doctrine, nor by the XVI. SECT. III. same mode of worship, nor yet by the same form PART II of government. It is farther to be observed, that this church does not require from its ministers, either uniformity in their private sentiments, or in their public doctrine, but permits them to explain, in different ways, several doctrines of no small moment, provided that the great and fundamental principles of Christianity, and the practical precepts of that divine religion, be maintained in their original purity. This great community, therefore, may be properly considered as an ecclesiastical body composed of several churches, that vary, more or less, from each other in their form and constitution; but which are preserved, however, from anarchy and schisms, by a general spirit of equity and toleration, that runs through the whole system, and renders variety of opinion consistent with fraternal union.

The causes that produced this state of things.

II. This indeed was not the original state and constitution of the Reformed church, but was the result of a certain combination of events and circumstances, that threw it, by a sort of necessity, into this ambiguous form. The doctors of Switzerland, from whom it derived its origin, and Calvin, who was one of its principal founders, employed all their credit, and exerted their most vigorous efforts, in order to reduce all the churches, which embraced their sentiments, under one rule of faith, and the same form of ecclesiastical government. And although they considered the Lutherans as their brethren, yet they shewed no marks of indulgence to those who openly favoured the opinions of Luther, concerning the Eucharist, the Person of Christ, Predestination, and other matters that were connected with these doctrines; nor would they permit the other protestant churches, that embraced their communion, to deviate from their example in this respect.

spect. A new scene, however, which was exhi-CENT. bited in Britain, contributed much to enlarge sect III. this narrow and contracted system of church. PART II. communion. For when the violent contest concerning the form of ecclesiastical government, and the nature and number of those rites and ceremonies that were proper to be admitted into the public worship, arose between the abettors of Episcopacy and the Puritans [r], it was judged necessary to extend the borders, of the Reformed church, and rank in the class of its true members, even those who departed, in some respects, from the ecclesiastical polity and doctrines established at Geneva. This spirit of toleration and indulgence grew still more forbearing and comprehensive after the famous synod of Dort. For though the sentiments and doctrines of the Arminians were rejected and condemned in that numerous assembly, yet they gained ground privately, and insinuated themselves into the minds of many. The church of England, under the reign of Charles I. publicly renounced the opinions of Calvin relating to the Divine Decrees, and made several attempts to model its doctrine and institutions after the laws, tenets, and customs, that were observed by the primitive Christians [s]. On the other hand, several Lutheran congregations in Germany entertained a strong propensity to the doctrines Aa4

of church government, of which Knox was one of the earliest abettors in Britain, derived this denomination from their pretending to a purer method of worship than that which had been established by Edward VI and Queen Elizabeth.

church of England, with archbishop Laud at their head, did, indeed, propagate the doctrines of Arminius, both in their pulpits, and in their writings. But it is not accurate to say that the Church of England renounced publicly, in that reign, the opinions of Calvin. See this matter farther discussed in the note [m], Cent. XVII. sect. II. p. II. ch. II. paragraph xx.

CENT. doctrines and discipline of the church of Geneva;
SECT. III. though they were restrained from declaring them-

PART II selves fully and openly on this head, by their apprehensions of forfeiting the privileges they derived from their adherence to the confession of Augsburg. The French refugees also, who had long been accustomed to a moderate way of thinking in religious matters, and whose national turn led them to a certain freedom of inquiry, being dispersed abroad in all parts of the protestant world, rendered themselves so agreeable, by their wit and eloquence, that their example excited a kind of emulation in favour of religious liberty. All these circumstances, accompanied with others, whose influence was less palpable, though equally real, instilled, by degrees, such a spirit of lenity and forbearance into the minds of protestants, that at this day, all Christians, if we except Roman catholics, Socinians, Quakers, and Anabaptists, may claim a place among the members of the Reformed church. It is true, great reluctance was discovered by many against this comprehensive scheme of church-communion; and, even in the times in which we live, the ancient and less charitable manner of proceeding hath several patrons, who would be glad to see the doctrines and institutions, of Calvin universally adopted and rigorously observed. The number, however, of these rigid doctors is not very great, nor is their influence considerable. And it may be affirmed with truth, that, both in point of number and authority, they are much inferior to the friends of moderation, who reduce within a narrow compass the fundamental doctrines of Christianity on the belief of which salvation depends, exercise forbearance and fraternal charity towards those who explain certain doctrines in a manner peculiar to themselves, and desire to see the enclosure (if I may use that expression) of the Reformed church

rendered as large and comprehensive as is pos-CENT.

sible [s].

SECT. III.

III. The founder of the Reformed church was PART IL Ulrick Zuingle, a native of Switzerland, and a The founman of uncommon penetration and acuteness, dation of accompanied with an ardent zeal for truth. This the Reformed great man was for removing out of the churches, church laid and abolishing in the ceremonies and appendages by Zuingle. of public worship, many things which Luther was disposed to treat with toleration and indulgence, such as images, altars, wax-tapers, the form of exorcism, and private confession. aimed at nothing so much as establishing, in his country, a method and form of divine worship remarkable for its simplicity, and as far remote as could be from every thing that might have the smallest tendency to nourish a spirit of superstition [t]. Nor were these the only circumstances in

[s] The annals of theology have not as yet been enriched with a full and accurate History of the Reformed Church. This task was indeed undertaken by Scultet, and even carried down so far as his own time, in his Annales Evangelii Renovati; but the greatest part of this work is lost. Theod. Hasæus, who proposed to give the Annals of the Reformed Church, was prevented by death from fulfilling his purpose. The famous work of James Basnage, published in two volumes 4to, at Rotterdam, in the year 1725, under the title of Histoire de la Religion des Eglises Reformées, instead of giving a regular History of the Reformed Church, is only designed to shew that its peculiar and distinguishing doctrines are not new inventions, but were taught and embraced in the earliest ages of the church. Maimbourg's Histoire du Calvinisme, is remarkable for nothing but the partiality of its author, and the wilful errors with which it abounds.

but in the execution of it perhaps he went too far, and consulted rather the dictates of reason than the real exigencies of human nature in its present state. The present union between soul and body, which operate together in the actions of moral agents, even in those that appear the most abstracted and refined, renders it necessary to consult the external senses, as well as the intellectual powers, in the institution of public worship.

Besides,

CENT. in which he differed from the Saxon reformer; SECT. III. for his sentiments concerning several points of PART II theology, and more especially his opinions relating to the sacrament of the Lord's supper, varied widely from those of Luther. The greatest part of these sentiments and opinions were adopted in Switzerland, by those who had joined themselves to Zuingle in promoting the cause of the Reformation, and were by them transmitted to all the Helvetic churches, that threw off the yoke of From Switzerland these opinions were propagated among the neighbouring nations, by the ministerial labours and the theological writings of the friends and disciples of Zuingle; and thus the primitive Reformed church, that was founded by this eminent ecclesiastic, and whose extent at first was not very considerable, gathered strength by degrees, and made daily new acquisitions.

The controversy between the Lutherans and Reeucharist.

IV. The separation between the Lutheran and Swiss churches was chiefly occasioned by the doctrine of Zuingle, concerning the sacrament and Reformed conof the Lord's supper. Luther maintained, that
seerning the the body and blood of Christ were really, though in a manner far beyond human comprehension, present in the eucharist, and were exhibited together with the bread and wine. On the contrary, the Swiss reformer looked upon the bread and wine in no other light, than as the signs and symbols of the absent body and blood of Christ; and from

> Besides, between a worship purely and philosophically rational, and a service grossly and palpably superstitious, there are many intermediate steps and circumstances, by which a rational service may be rendered more affecting and awakening, without becoming superstitious. A noble edifice, a solemn music, a well ordered set of external gestures, though they do not, in themselves, render our prayers one whit more acceptable to the Deity than if they were offered up without any of these circumstances, produce, nevertheless, a good effect. They elevate the mind, they give it a composed and solemn frame, and thus contribute to the servour of its devotion.

from the year 1524, propagated this doctrine in CENT. a public manner by his writings, after having 8 2 c 7. III. entertained and taught it privately before that PART. IL period [u]. In a little time after this [w], his example was followed by Oecolampadius, a divine of Basil, and one of the most learned men of that century [x]. But they were both opposed with obstinacy and spirit by Luther and his associates, particularly those of the circle of Suabia. In the mean time, Philip, landgrave of Hesse, apprehending the pernicious effects that these debates might have upon the affairs of the protestants, which were, as yet, in that fluctuating and unsettled state that marks the infancy of all great revolutions, was desirous of putting an end to these differences, and appointed for that purpose, a conference at Marpurg, between Zuingle, • Luther, and other doctors of both parties [y]. This meeting, however, only covered the flame, instead of extinguishing it; and the pacific prince, seeing it impossible to bring about a definitive treaty of peace and concord between these jarring divines, was obliged to rest satisfied with having engaged them to consent to a truce. and Zuingle came to an agreement about several points; but the principal matter in debate, even

<sup>[</sup>u] Zuingle certainly taught this doctrine in private before the year 1524, as appears from Gerdes, Historia Renovat. Evangelii, tom. i. Append. p. 228.

<sup>[</sup>w] In the year 1525.

<sup>[</sup>x] Jo. Conr. Fueshni Centuria I. Epistol. Theolog. Reformat. p. 31, 35, 44, 49.— Decolampadius was not less remarkable for his extraordinary modesty, his charitable, forbearing, and pacific spirit, and his zeal for the progress of vital and practical religion, than for his profound erudition, which he seemed rather studious to conceal than to display.

cer, and Hedion. Luther had with him Melancthon and Justus Jonas from Saxony, together with Osiander, Brentius, and Agricola.

CENT. even that which regarded Christ's presence in Szcr. III. the eucharist, was left undecided; each party PART IL appealing to the Fountain of wisdom to terminate this controversy, and expressing their hopes that time and impartial reflexion might discover and confirm the truth [z].

The progress of these disputes so far death of Luther.

V. The Reformed church had scarcely been founded in Switzerland by Zuingle, when this Christian hero fell in a battle that was fought, down as the in the year 1530, between the protestants of Zurich, and their Roman-catholic compatriots, who drew the sword in defence of popery. It was not indeed to perform the sanguinary office of a soldier that Zuingle was present at this engagement, but with a view to encourage and animate, by his counsels and exhortations, the valiant defenders of the protestant cause [a.]. After his death.

> [2] Ruchat, Histoire de la Reformation de la Suisse, vol. is passim, vol. ii. livr. vi. p. 463.—Hottinger, Actactische Kirchen-Geschichte, part III. p. 27, 51, 483.—Val. Ern. Loscheri Historia Matuum, part I. cap. ii. iii. p. 55. cap. vi. p. 143.-Fueslie, Beytrage zur Schweizer Reformation, tom. iv. p. 120.

> [a] The Lutherans, who consider this unhappy fate of Zuingle as a reproach upon that great man in particular, and upon the reformed church in general, discover a gross ignorance of the genius and manners of the Swiss nation in this century. For as all he inhabitants of that country are at present trained to arms, and obliged to take the field when the defence of their country requires it, so in the time of Zuingle this obligation was so universal, that neither the ministers of the gospel, nor the professors of theology, were exempted from this military service. Accordingly, in the same battle in which Zuingle fell, Jerome Potanus, one of the theological doctors of Resil, also lost his life. See Fueslini Centuria I. Epistolar Theol. Reformator. p. 84. Erasmus also spoke in a very unfriendly manner of the death of Zuingle and his friend Oecolampadius. See Jortin's Life of Erasmus, vol. i: p. 522. It is not therefore surprising to find the bigotted Sir Thomas More insulting (with the barbarity that superstition seldom fails to produce in a narrow and peevish mind) the memory of these two eminent reformers, in a letter to the

> > furious

death, several Lutheran doctors of the more mo C.E.N.T. derate sort, and particularly Martin Bucer, used SECT. III. their utmost endeavours to bring about some kind PART II. of reconciliation between the contending parties. For this purpose they exhorted the jarring theologians to concord, interpreted the points in dispute with a prudent regard to the prejudices of both sides, admonished them of the pernicious consequences that must attend the prolongation of these unhappy contests, and even went so far as to express the respective sentiments of the contending doctors in terms of considerable ambiguity and latitude, that thus the desired union might be the more easily effected. There is no doubt, but that the intentions and designs of these zealous intercessors were pious and upright [b]; but it will be difficult to decide, whether or no the means they employed were adapted to promote the end they had in view. Be that as it may, these pacific counsels of Bucer excited divisions in Switzerland; for some persevered obstinately in the doctrine of Zuingle, while others adopted the explications and modifications of his doctrine that were offered by Bucer [c]. But these divisions and commotions had not the least effect on that reconciliation with Luther, that was earnestly desired by the pious and moderate doctors

furious and turbulent Cochlaeus; of which the following words shew the spirit of the writer: "Postrema ea fuit, quam de Zuinglio et Oecolampadio scriptam misisti, quorum nunciata mors mihi Lætitiam attulit. —Sublatos e medio esse tam immanes Fidei Christianæ hostes, tam intentos ubique in omnem perimendæ pietatis occasionem, jure gaudere possum."

Jortin, ibid. vol. ii. p. 702. App. No. xvi. N.

[b] See Alb. Menon. Verpoorten, Comment. de Mart. Bucero et ejus Sententia de Cana Domini, sect. ix. p. 23. published in 8vo, at Coburg, in the year 1709.—Loscheri Histor.
Moraum, part I. lib. ii. cap. i. p. 181. and part II. lib. iii.
cap. ii. p. 15

[c] Fueslini Centur. I. Epistolar. Theolog. p. 162, 170, 181, 482, 190, &c.

14:

CENT. doctors on both sides. The efforts of Bucer SECT. III. were more successful out of Switzerland, and par-PART II ticularly among those divines in the upper parts of Germany, who inclined to the sentiments of the Helvetic church; for they retired from the communion of that church; and joined themselves to Luther by a public act, which was sent to Wittemberg, in the year 1536, by a solemn deputation appointed for that purpose [d]. The Swiss divines could not be brought to so great a length. There was, however, still some prospect of effecting a reconciliation between them and the Lutherans. But this fair prospect entirely disappeared in the year 1544, when Luther published his Confession of faith in relation to the sacrament of the Lord's supper, which was directly opposite to the doctrine of Zuingle and his followers, on that head. The doctors of Zurich pleaded their cause publicly against the Saxon reformer the year following; and thus the purposes of the peace-makers were

totally defeated [e]. VI. The death of Luther, which happened in The transactions that the year 1546, was an event that seemed adapted the death of to calm these commotions, and to revive, in the Luther. breasts of the moderate and pacific, the hopes of a

reconciliation between the contending parties. For this union, between the Lutherans and Zuinglians, was so ardently desired by Melancthon, and his followers, that this great man left no means unemployed to bring it about, and seemed resolved rather to submit to a dubious and forced peace, than to see those flaming discords perpetuated, which reflected such dishonour on the protestant cause. On the other hand, this salutary work seemed to be facilitated by the theological

[e] Loscherus, loc. cit. part i. lib. ii. cap. iv. p. 348.

<sup>[</sup>d] Loscherus, Lc. cit. cap. ii. p. 205 .- Ruchat, Histoire de la Reformat. de la Suisse, tom. v. p. 535.—Hottingeri Histor. Aceles. Helver. tom. iii. lib. vi. p. 702.

gical system that was adopted by John Calvin, CENT. a native of Noyon in France, who was pastor and SECT. III. professor of divinity at Geneva, and whose genius, PART II. learning, eloquence, and talents rendered him respectable even in the eyes of his enemies. This great man, whose particular friendship for Melancthon was an incidental circumstance highly favourable to the intended reconciliation, proposed an explication of the point in debate, that modified the crude hypothesis of Zuingle, and made use of all his credit and authority among the Swiss, and more particularly at Zurich, where he was held in the highest veneration, in order to obtain their assent to it [f]. The explication he proposed was not, indeed, favourable to the doctrine of Christ's bodily presence in the eucharist, which he persisted in denying; he supposed, however, that a certain divine virtue or efficacy was communicated by Christ with the bread and wine, to those who approached this holy sacrament with a lively faith, and with upright hearts; and to render this notion still more satisfactory, he expressed it in almost the same terms which the Lutherans employed in inculcating their doctrine of Christ's real presence in the eucharist [g]. For the great and common error of all those. who, from a desire of peace, assumed the character of arbitrators in this controversy, lay in this, that they aimed rather at a uniformity of terms, than of sentiments; and seemed satisfied when they had engaged the contending parties to use

[f] Christ. Aug. Salig. Historia Aug. Confession. tom. ii.

lib. vii. cap. iii. p. 1075.

in his explication of the benefits that arise from a worthy commemoration of Christ's death in the eucharist, he dwelt too grossly upon the allegorical expressions of scripture, which the papists had so egregiously abused, and talked of really eating by faith the body, and drinking the blood of Christ

CENT. use the same words and phrases, though their real XVI.

SECT. III. difference in opinion remained the same, and each PART IL explained these ambiguous or figurative terms in a manner agreeable to their respective systems.

The concord, so much desired, did not, however, seem to advance much. Melancthon, who stood foremost in the rank of those who longed impatiently for it, had not courage enough to embark openly in the execution of such a perilous project. Besides, after the death of Luther, his enemies attacked him with redoubled fury, and gave him so much disagreeable occupation, that he had neither that leisure, nor that tranquillity of mind, that were necessary to prepare his measures properly for such an arduous undertaking. A new obstacle to the execution of this pacific project was also presented, by the intemperate zeal of Joachim Westphal, pastor at Hamburg, who, in the year 1552, renewed, with greater vehemence than ever, this deplorable controversy, which had been for some time suspended, and who, after Flacius, was the most obstinate defender of the opinions of Luther. This violent theologian attacked with that spirit of acrimony and vehemence, that was too rein the polemic writings of Luther, markable the act of uniformity, by which the churches of Geneva and Zurich declared their agreement concerning the doctrine of the eucharist. In the book which he published with this view [b], he censured with the utmost severity, the variety of sentiments concerning the sacrament of the Lord's supper that was observable in the Reformed church, and maintained, with his usual warmth and obstinacy,

<sup>[</sup>b] This book, which abounds with senseless and extravagant tenets that Luther never so much as thought of, and breathes the most virulent spirit of persecution, is entitled "Farrago confusanearum et inter se dissidentium de S. Campinionum ex Sacramentariorum Libris congesta."

stinacy, the opinion of Luther on that subject. CENT.
This engaged Calvin to enter the list with West-SECT. III.
phal, whom he treated with as little lenity and for-PART II.
bearance, as the rigid Lutheran had shewed towards
the Helvetic churches. The consequences of this
debate were, that Calvin and Westphal had each
their zealous defenders and patrons; hence the
breach widened, the spirits were heated, and the
flame of controversy was kindled anew with such
violence and fury, that, to extinguish it entirely,
seemed to be a task beyond the reach of human
wisdom or human power [i].

VII. These disputes were unhappily augmented, The controlin process of time, by that famous controversy cerning preconcerning the decrees of God, with respect to the destination. eternal condition of men, which was set on foot by Calvin, and became an inexhaustible source of intricate researches, and abstruse, subtile, and inexplicable questions. The most ancient Helvetic doctors were far from adopting the doctrine of those, who represent the Deity as allotting, from all eternity, by an absolute, arbitrary, and unconditional decree, to some everlasting happiness. and to others endless misery, without any previous regard to the moral characters and circumstances of either. Their sentiments seemed to differ but very little from those of the Pelagians; nor did they hesitate in declaring, after the example of Zuingle, that the kingdom of heaven was open to all who lived according to the dictates of right reason [k]. Calvin had adopted a quite different

[i] Loscheri Historia Mutuum, part II. lib. iii. cap. viii. p. 83.—Molleri, Cimbria Literata, tom. iii. p. 642. Arn. Grevii Memoria Joac. Westphali, p. 62, 106.

<sup>[</sup>k] For the proof of this assertion, see Dallei Apologia pro duabus Ecclesiarum Gallicar. Synodis adversus Frid. Spanbeim. part IV. p. 946.—Jo. Alphons. Turretini Epistol. ad Antestitem Cantuariensem, which is inserted in the Bibliotheque Germanic, tom. xiii. p. 92.—Simon, Bibliotheque Crisique, published under the fictitious name of Sainior, Vol. IV.

B b

C E N T. disserent system with respect to the divine decrees. SECT. III. He maintained, that the everlasting condition of PART II. mankind in a future world, was determined from all eternity by the unchangeable order of the Deity, and that this absolute determination of his will and good pleasure was the only source of happiness or misery to every individual. This opinion was, in a very short time, propagated through all the Reformed churches, by the writings of Calvin, and by the ministry of his disciples, and in some places was inserted in the national creeds and confessions; and thus made a public article of faith. The unhappy controversy, which took its rise from this doctrine, was opened at Strasburg, in the year 1560, by Jerome Zanchius, an Italian ecclesiastic, who was particularly attached to the sentiments of Calvin; and was afterwards carried on by others with such zeal and assiduity, that it drew, in an extraordinary manner, the attention of the public, and tended as much to exasperate the passions, and foment the discord of the contending parties, as the dispute about the eucharist had already done [1].

The discord VIII. The Helvetic doctors had no prospect is carried to the greatest left of calming the troubled spirits and temperheight. ing, at least, the vehemence of these deplorable feuds, but the moderation of the Saxon divines, who were the disciples of Melancthon, and who, breathing

> tom. iii. ch. xxviii. p. 292, 298, and also the author of a book, entitled, Observationes Gallica in Formul. Consensus Helveticum, p. 52. The very learned Dr Gerdes, instead of being persuaded by these testimonies, maintains, on the contrary, in his Miscellan. Groningens. tom. ii. p. 476, 477, that the sentiments of Calvin were the same with those of the ancient Swiss doctors. But this excellent author may be refuted, even from his own account of the tumults that were occasioned in Switzerland, by the opinion that Calvin had propagated in relation to the divine decrees.

> [1] Loscheri Historia Motuum, part III. lib. v. cap. ii. p. 27, S. c. x. p. 227.—Salig, Historia Angust. Confession, tom.

i. lib. ii. cap. xiii. p. 441.

breathing the pacific spirit of their master, seemed, C E N T. after his death, to have nothing so much at heart sect III. as the restoration of concord and union in the pro-PART II. testant church. Their designs, however, were not carried on with that caution and circumspection, with that prudent foresight, or that wise attention to the nature of the times, which distinguished always the transactions of Melancthon, and which the critical nature of the cause they were engaged in, indispensably required. And hence they had already taken a step, which was adapted to render ineffectual all the remedies they could apply to the healing of the present disorders. For, by dispersing every where artful and insidious writings, with a design to seduce the ministers of the church, and the studious youth, into the sentiments of the Swiss divines, or, at least, to engage them to treat these sentiments with toleration and forbearance, they drew upon themselves the indignation of their adversaries, and ruined the pacific cause in which they had embarked. It was this conduct of theirs that gave occasion to the composition of that famous Form of Concord, which condemned the sentiments of the Reformed churches in relation to the person of Christ, and the sacrament of the Lord's supper. And as this Form is received by the greatest part of the Lutherans, as one of the articles of their religion; hence arises an insuperable obstacle to all schemes of reconciliation and concord.

1X. So much did it seem necessary to premise what those concerning the cause, rise, and progress of the things are, that are controversy, which formed that separation that most worstill subsists between the Lutheran and Reformed thy of obschurches. From thence it will be proper to protect the rise and ceed to an account of the internal state of the progress of latter, and to the history of its progress and revoformed lutions. The history of the Reformed church, church, during this century, comprehends too distinct B b 2 periods.

SECT. III. when Zuingle withdrew from the communion of PART II Rome, and began to form a Christian church beyond the bounds of the pope's jurisdiction; and it extends to the time of Calvin's settlement at Geneva, where he acquired the greatest reputation and authority. The second period takes in the rest of this century.

During the first of these perods, the Helvetic church, which assumed the title of Reformed after the example of the French protestants in their neighbourhood, who had chosen this denomination in order to distinguish themselves from the Roman catholics, was very inconsiderable in its extent, and was confined to the cantons of Switzerland. It was indeed augmented by the accession of some small states in Suabia and Alsace, such as the city of Strasbourg, and some little republics. But, in the year 1536, these petty states changed sides, through the suggestions and influence of Bucer, returned to the communion of the Saxon church, and thus made their peace with Luther. The other religious communities, which abandoned the church of Rome, either openly embraced the doctrine of Luther, or consisted of persons, who were not agreed in their theological opinions, and who really seemed to stand in a kind of neutrality between the contending parties. All things being duly considered, it appears probable enough that the church, founded by Zuingle, would have remained still confined to the narrow limits which bounded it at first, had not Calvin arisen, to augment its extent, authority, and lustre. For the natural and political character of the Swiss, which is neither bent towards the lust of conquest, nor the grasping views of ambition, discovered itself in their religious transactions. And, as a spirit of contentment with what they had, prevented their aiming

aiming at an augmentation of their territory, so CENT. did a similar spirit hinder them from being ex-SECT. III. tremely solicitous about enlarging the borders of PART II. their church.

X. In this infant state of the Reformed church, The religithe only point that prevented its union with our points the followers of Luther, was the doctrine they excited divitaught with respect to the sacrament of the Lord's sions besupper. This first controversy, indeed, soon pro-swiss and duced a second, relating to the person of Jesus the Luther-Christ, which, nevertheless, concerned only part of the Lutheran church [m]. The Lutheran divines of Suabia, in the course of their debates with those of Switzerland, drew an argument in favour of the real presence of Christ's body and blood in the eucharist, from the following proposition; that all the properties of the divine nature, and consequently its omnipresence, were communicated to the human nature of Christ by the bypostatic union. The Swiss doctors, in order to destroy the force of this argument, denied this communication of the divine attributes to Christ's buman nature, and denied, more especially, the ubiquity or omnipresence of the man Jesus. And hence arose that most intricate and abstruse controversy concerning ubiquity and the communication of properties, that produced so many learned and unintelligible treatises, so many subtile disputes, and occasioned that multitude of invectives and accusations, that the contending parties threw out against each other with such liberality and profusion.

Bb<sub>3</sub> It

that were much more rigid in their doctrine than Luther himself, that believed the ubiquity or omnipresence of Christ's person, considered as a man. By this we may see that the Lutherans have their divisions, as well as the Reformed, of which several instances may be yet given in the course of this history.

XVI.

church.

CENT. It is proper to observe, that, at this time, the SECT. III. Heivetic church universally embraced the doc-PART II trine of Zuingle concerning the eucharist. This doctrine, which differed considerably from that of Calvin, amounted to the following propositions: "That the bread and wine were no more than a " representation of the body and blood of Christ; or, in other words, the signs appointed to de-" note the benefits that were conferred upon man-"kind in consequence of the death of Christ; "that, therefore, Christians derived no other fruit " from the participation of the Lord's supper, than "a mere commemoration and remembrance of "the merits of Christ, which, according to an " expression common in the mouths of the abet-" tors of this doctrine, was the only thing that was " properly meant by the Lord's supper [n]." Bucer, whose leading principle was the desire of peace and concord, endeavoured to correct and modify this doctrine in such a manner, as to give it a certain degree of conformity to the hypothesis of Luther; but the memory of Zuingle was too fresh in the minds of the Swiss to permit their accepting of these corrections and modifications, or to suffer them to depart, in any respect, from the doctrine of that eminent man, who had founded their church, and been the instrument of their deliverance from the tyranny and superstition of Rome.

X1. In the year 1541, John Calvin, who sur-John Calvin the principassed almost all the doctors of this age in laborious of the Rcformed

> [n] Nil esse in Cana, quam memoriam Christi. That this was the real opinion of Zuingle, appears evidently from various testimonies. which may be seen in the Museum Helveticum, tom. i. p. 485, 490, tom. iii. p. 631.—This is also confirmed by the following sentence in Zuingle's book concerning baptism: (tom. ii. opp. p. 85.) "Cæna Dominica non aliud, quam Commemorationis nomen meretur." Compare with all this Fueslini Centur I. Epistolar. Theologor. Reformator. p. 255, 262, &c.

borious application, constancy of mind, force of CENT. eloquence, and extent of genius, returned to  $Ge_{SECT. III.}$  neva, from whence the opposition of his enemies PART. II. had obliged him to retire. On his settlement in that city, the affairs of the new church were committed to his direction [0], and he acquired also a high degree of influence in the political administration of that republic. This event changed entirely the face of affairs, and gave a new aspect to the Reformed church. The views and projects of this great man were grand and extensive. For he not only undertook to give strength and vigour to the rising church, by framing the wisest laws and the most salutary institutions for the maintenance of order and the advancement of true piety, but even proposed to render Geneva the mother, the seminary, of all the Reformed churches, as Wittemberg was of all the Lutheran communities. He laid a scheme for sending forth from this little republic, the succours and ministers that were to promote and propagate the protestant cause through the most distant nations, and aimed at nothing less than rendering the government, discipline, and doctrine of Geneva the model and rule of imitation to the Reformed churches throughout the world. The undertaking was certainly great, and worthy of the extensive genius and capacity of this eminent man; and, great and arduous as it was, it was executed in part, nay, carried on to a very B b 4 considerable

<sup>[</sup>o] Calvin, in reality, enjoyed the power and authority of a bishop at Geneva; for, as long as he lived, he presided in the assembly of the clergy, and in the consistory or ecclesiastical judicatory. But when he was at the point of death, he advised the clergy not to give him a successor, and proved to them evidently the dangerous consequences of entrusting with any one man, during life, a place of such high authority. After him, therefore, the place of president ceased to be perpetual. See Spon, Histoire de Geneve, tom. ii. p. 111.

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CENT considerable length, by his indefatigable assiduity, SECT. III and inextinguishable zeal. It was with this view. PART II that, by the fame of his learning, as well as by his epistolary solicitations and encouragements of various kinds, he engaged many persons of rank and fortune, in France, Italy, and other countries, to leave the places of their nativity, and to settle: at Geneva; while others repaired thither merely out of a curiosity to see a man, whose talents, and exploits had rendered him so famous, and to hear the discourses which he delivered in public. Another circumstance, that contributed much to the success of his designs, was the establishment of an academy at Geneva, which the senate of: that city founded at his request; and in which he himself, with his colleague Theodore Beza, and other divines of eminent learning and abilities, taught the sciences with the greatest reputation. In effect, the lustre which these great men reflected upon this infant seminary of learning, spread its fame through the distant nations with such amazing rapidity, that all who are ambitious of a distinguished progress in either sacred or, profane erudition, repaired to Geneva, and that England, Scotland, France, Italy, and Germany, seemed to vie with each other in the numbers of their studious youth, that were incessantly repairing to the new academy. By these means, and by the ministry of these his disciples, Calvin enlarged considerably the borders of the Reformed church, propagated his doctrine, and gained preselytes and patrons to his theological system, in several countries of Europe. In the midst of this glorious career he ended his days, in the year 1564; but the salutary institutions and wise regulations, of which he had been the author, were both respected and maintained after his death. In a more especial manner the academy of Geneva flourished

Hourished as much under Beza, as it had done C = N - T, during the life of its founder [p].

AII. The plan of doctrine and discipline, that PART II. had been formed by Zuingle, was altered and The form corrected by Calvin; and that more especially of doctrine in three points, of which it will not be improper sistical goton to give a particular account.

1st, Zuingle, in his form of ecclesiastical go-by this Revernment, had given an absolute and unbounded former. power in religious matters, to the civil magistrate, to whom he had placed the cleary in a degree of subjection that was displeasing to many. But at the same time he allowed of a certain subordination and difference of rank among the ministers of the church, and even thought it expedient to place at their head a perpetual president, or superintendent, with a certain degree of inspection and authority. over the whole body. Calvin, on the contrary, reduced the power of the magistrate, in religious matters, within narrow bounds. He declared the church a separate and independent body, endowed with the power of legislation for itself. He maintained, that it was to be governed, like the primitive church, only by presbyteries and synods, that is, by assemblies of elders; composed both of the clergy and laity; and he left to the civil magistrate little else than the privilege of protecting and defending the church, and providing for what related to its external exigencies and concerns. Thus this eminent Reformer introduced into

<sup>[</sup>p] The various projects and plans that were formed, conducted, and executed with equal prudence and resolution by Calvin, in behalf both of the Republic and Church of Geneva, are related by the learned person who, in the year 1730, gave a new edition (enriched with interesting historical notes, and authentic documents) of Spon's Histoire de Geneve. The particular accounts of Calvin's transactions, given by this anonymous editor, in his notes, are drawn from several curious manuscripts of undoubted credit. See Spon, Histoire de Geneve, tom. ii. p. 87, 100, &c.

CENT into the republic of Geneva, and endeavoured to XVI.

SECT. III. introduce into all the Reformed churches through
PART IL OUT Europe, that Form of ecclesiastical government, which is called Presbyterian, from its neither admitting of the institution of bishops, nor of any subordination among the clergy; and which is founded on this principle, that all ministers of the gospel are, by the laws of God, declared to be equal in rank and authority. In consequence of this principle, he established at Geneva a consistory, composed of ruling elders, partly pastors, and partly laymen, and invested this ecclesiastical body with a high decree of power and authority. He also convened synods, composed of the ruling elders of different churches, and in these consistories and synods had laws enacted for the regulation of all matters of a religious nature; and among other things, restored to its former vigour the ancient practice of excommunication. All these things were done with the consent of the greatest part of the senate of Geneva.

> 2dly, The system that Zuingle had adopted with respect to the eucharist, was by no means agreeable to Calvin, who, in order to facilitate the desired union with the Lutheran church, substituted in its place another, which appeared more conformable to the doctrine of that church, and, in reality, differed but little from it. For while the doctrine of Zuingle supposed only a symbolical or figurative, presence of the body and blood of Christ in the eucharist, and represented a pious remembrance of Christ's death, and of the benesits it procured to mankind, as the only fruits that arose from the celebration of the Lord's supper, Calvin explained this critical point in a quite disserent manner. He acknowledged a real, though spiritual, presence of Christ in this sacrament; or, in other words, he maintained, that true Christians, who approached this holy ordi

nance with a lively faith, were, in a certain man-C F N T. ner, united to the man Christ; and that from SECT. III. this union the spiritual life derived new vigour in PART II. the soul, and was still carried on, in a progressive motion, to greater degrees of purity and perfection. This kind of language had been used in the forms of doctrine drawn up by Luther; and as Calvin observed, among other things, that the divine grace was conferred upon sinners, and sealed to them by the celebration of the Lord's supper, this induced many to suppose that he adopted the sentiment implied in the barbarous term impanation [q], and differed but little from the doctrine of the Lutheran church on this important

[9] The term Impanation (which signifies here the presence of Christ's body in the eucharist, in or with the bread that is there exhibited) amounts to what is called Consubstantiation. It was a modification of the monstrous doctrine of Transubstantiation, first invented by some of the disciples of Berenger, who had not a mind to break all measures with the church of Rome, and was afterwards adopted by Luther and his followers, who, in reality, made sad work of it. For, in order to give it some faint air of possibility, and to maintain it as well as they could, they fell into a wretched scholastic jargon about the nature of substances, subsistences, attributes, properties, and accidents, that did infinite mischief to the true and sublime science of gospel theology, whose beautiful simplicity it was adapted to destroy. The very same perplexity and darkness, the same quibbling, sophistical, and unintelligible logic, that reigned in the attempts of the Roman catholics to defend the doctrine of Transubstantiation, were visible in the controversial writings of the Lutherans in behalf of Consubstantiation, or Impanation. The latter had, indeed, one absurdity less to maintain; but being obliged to assert, in opposition to intuitive evidence, and unchangeable truth, that the same body can be in many places at the same time, they were consequently obliged to have recourse to the darkest and most intricate jargon of the schools, to hide the nonsense of this unaccountable doctrine. The modern Lutherans are grown somewhat wiser in this respect; at least, they seem less zealous than their ancestors about the tenet in guestion.

formed

churches.

C = N T portant subject [r]. Be that as it may, his senti-S & C T. III. ments differed considerably from those of Zuingle; PARTH for while the latter asserted, that all Christians, without distinction, whether regenerate or unregenerate, might be partakers of the body and blood of Christ; Calvin confined this privilege to the pious and regenerate believer alone.

3dly, The absolute decree of God, with respect to the future and everlasting condition of the human race, which made no part of the theology of Zuingle, was an essential tenet in the creed of Calvin, who inculcated with zeal the following doctrine: Ibat God, in predestinating, from all eternity, one part of mankind to everlasting bappiness, and another to endless misery, was led to make this distinction by no other motive than his own Good Pleasure and Free Will.

XIII. The first of the three points now men-These changes made by tioned, was of such a nature, that great as the credit and influence of Calvin were, he could not approvnot ed of, nor ' received by

all the Re-[r] See Fueslini Centur. I. Epistol. Theolog. Reformat. tow. i. p. 255, 256, 262, 263.—Lettres de Calvin a Mons. Jac. de Falaise, p. 84, 85.-We learn in Fueslin, p. 263, that Calvin wrote to Bucer a letter, intimating, that he approved of his sentiments. It is possible, that he may have derived from Bucer the opinion he entertained with respect to the eucharist. -See Bossuet, Histoire des Variations des Eglises Protestantes, tom. ii. p. 8, 14, 19.—Courayer, Examen des Defauts des Theologiens, tom. ii. p. 72. These two writers pretend that the sentiments of Calvin, with respect to the eucharist, were almost the same with those of the Roman Catholics ‡. truth of this matter is, that the obscurity and inconsistency with which this great man expressed himself upon that subject, render it extremely difficult to give a clear and accurate account of his doctrine.

t How it could come into the heads of such men as Bossuet and Dr Courager to say, that the " sentiments of Calvin concerning the eucharist were almost the same with those of the Roman Catholics," is, indeed, strange enough. The doctrine of transubstantiation was to Calvin an inyincible obstacle to any sort of conformity between him and Rome on that subject. For however obscure and figurative his expressions with respect to Christ's spiritual presence in the encharist may have been, he never once dreamed of any thing like a corporal presence in that Holy Sacrament.

not procure a universal reception for it in the CENT.

Reformed churches. The English and Germans SECT. III.

rejected it, and even the Swiss refused to adopt PART IL. it. It was, however, received by the Reformed churches in France, Holland, and Scotland. The Swiss remained firm in their opposition: they would not suffer the form of ecclesiastical government, that had once beenestablished under the inspection of Zuingle, to be changed in any respect, nor the power of the civil magistrate, in religious matters, to receive the smallest prejudice. The other two points were long debated, even in Switzerland, with the greatest warmth. Several churches, more especially those of Zurich and Bern, maintained obstinately the doctrine of Zuingle in relation to the eucharist [s]; neither could they be easily persuaded; to admit, as an article of faith, the doctrine of predestination, as it had been taught by Calvin [t]. The prudence, however, of this great man, seconded by his resolute perseverance and his extraordinary credit, triumphed at length so far, as to bring about an union between the Swiss churches and that of Geneva, first in relation to the doctrine of the eucharist [u], and afterwards also on the subject of predestination [w]. The followers of Calvin extended still farther the triumphs of their chief, and improved with such success the footing he had gained, that, in process of time, almost all the Reformed churches adopted his theological system,

<sup>[</sup>s] See Fueslini Centur. Epistolar. p. 264.—Museum Helvet. tom. i. p. 490, tom. v. p. 479, 483, 490, tom. ii. p. 79.

<sup>[1]</sup> Besides Ruchat and Hottinger, see Museum Helveticum, tom. ii. p. 105, 107, 117.—Gerdes, Miscellan. Groningens. Nova, tom. ii. p. 476, 477.

<sup>[</sup>u] The agreement between the churches of Switzerland

and that of Geneva was concluded in 1549 and 1554.

<sup>[</sup>w] See the Consensus Genev. et Tigurinor. in Calvini Qpusculis, p. 754.

CENT. system to which, no doubt, his learned writings

SECT. III. contributed a good deal [x].

The progress of Cal- discipline of the Reformed church, as modelled win's system by Calvin, were established in a fixed and perinGermany; manent manner. Among its chief patrons in Germany we may reckon Frederick III. elector Palatine, who, in the year 1560, removed from their pastoral functions the Lutheran doctors, and

filled their places with Calvinists; and, at the same time, obliged his subjects to embrace the tenets, rites, and institutions, of the church of Geneva [y]. This order was indeed abrogated, in the year 1576, by his son and successor Lewis, who restored Lutheranism to its former credit; and authority. The effects of this revolution were, however, but transitory; for, in the year 15834 under the government of the elector John Casimir, who had followed the example of his brother Frederick in embracing the discipline of the Reformed church, the face of things was again changed in favour of Calvinism, which resumed what it had lost, and became triumphant [z]. From this period the church of the Palatinate obtained the second place among the Reformed churches;

[y] Hen. Altingii Hist. Eccl. Palet. in Lud. Chr. Miegii klonum. Palat. tom. i. p. 223.—Loscheri Historia Motuum, part II. lib. iv. cap. iv. p. 125.—Salig, Hist. Confession. Aug. tom. iii. lib. ix. cap. v. p. 433.

[3] Alting. lec. cit.—Loscherus, ibid. part III. lib. vi. p. 224.—See also a German work entitled, Gotth. Struvius, Pjaelzische Kirchen Historie, p. 110.

<sup>[</sup>x] The learned Dan. Ern. Jablonsky, in his Letters to Leibnitz, published by Kappius, maintains (p. 24, 25, 41), that the opinion of Zuingle has no longer any patrons among the Reformed. But this is a palpable mistake. For its patrons and defenders are, on the contrary, extremely numerous; and at this very time the doctrine of Zuingle is revived in England, Switzerland, and other countries, and seems to acquire new degrees of credit from day to day.

churches; and its influence and reputation were CENT. so considerable, that the Form of instruction, which SECT. III. was composed for its use by Ursinus, and which PART IL is known under the title of the Catechism of Heidelberg, was almost universally adopted by the Calvinists [a]. The republic of Bremen embraced, also, the doctrine and institutions of the Reformed. Albert Hardeberg, the intimate friend of Melancthon, was the first who attempted to introduce there, the doctrine of Calvin concerning the eucharist. This attempt he made so early as the year 1556; and, though a powerful opposition rendered it unsuccessful, and procured the expulsion of its author out of the city of Bremen, yet the latent seeds of Calvinism took root, and, towards the conclusion of this century, acquired such strength, that no measures either of prudence or force were sufficient to prevent the church of Bremen from modelling its faith, worship, and government, after that of Geneva [b]. The various motives that engaged other German states to adopt by degrees, the same sentiments, and the incidents and circumstances that favoured the progress of Calvinism in the empire, must be sought in those writers, who have undertaken to give a full complete, and ample history of the Christian church.

XV. Those among the French, who first renoun and in ced the jurisdiction and doctrine of the church france of Rome, are commonly called Lutherans by the writers of these early times. This denomination, joined to other circumstances, has engaged some to imagine, that these French converts to the protestant

[a] For an account of the catechism of Heidelberg, see Kocheri Bibliotheca Theologiæ Symbolicæ, p. 593 and 308.

<sup>[</sup>b] Salig, loc. cit. part III. lib. x. cap. v. p. 715, and cap. vi. p. 776.—Loscherus, loc. cit. part II. lib. iv. cap. v. p. 134, and part III. lib. vi. cap. vii. p. 276.—Gerdes, Historia Resenvari Evangelii, tom. iii. p. 157.

CENT. protestant cause were attached to the tenets of the Szer. III. Lutheran church, and averse to the cenets of the Swiss PART II doctors [c]. But this is by no means a just representation of the matter. It appears much more probable, that the first French protestants were uniform in nothing but their antipathy to the church of Rome, and that, this point being excepted, their was a great variety in their religious sentiments. It is, however, to be observed, that the vicinity of Geneva, Lausanne, and other cities which had adopted the doctrine of Calvin, together with the incredible zeal of this eminent man, and his two colleagues Farel and Beza, in nourishing the opposition of the church of Rome, and augmenting both the indignation and number of its enemies, produced a very remarkable effect upon the French churches; for, about the middle of this century, they all, without exception, entered into the bonds of fraternal communion with the church of Geneva. The French protestants were called by their enemies, Huguenots, by way of derision and contempt; the origin, however,

> [c] Loscheri Historia Motuum, part II. cap. vi. p. 46.— Salig. Hist. Aug. Confession. tom. ii. lib. v. cap. vi. p. 190.

> of this denomination is extremely uncertain  $\lceil d \rceil$ .

Their

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Huguon, a word used in Touraine, to signify persons that walk at night in the streets. And as the first protestants, like the first Christians, might have chosen that season for their religious assemblies, through the fear of persecution, the nickname of huguenot may, naturally enough, have been applied to them by their enemies. Others are of opinion, that it was derived from a French and faulty pronunciation of the German word eidgnossen, which signifies confederates, and had been originally the name of that valiant part of the city of Geneva which entered into an alliance with the Swiss Cantons, in order to maintain their liberties against the tyrannical attempts of Charles III. duke of Savoy. These confederates were called eignots, and from thence, very probably, was derived the word huguenots, now under consideration. The

Their fate was severe; the storms of persecution C E N T. assailed them with unparalleled fury; and, though s x vi. many princes of the royal blood, and a great PARTIL number of the flower of the nobility, adopted their sentiments, and stood forth in their cause [e], yet it may nevertheless be affirmed, that no other part of the Reformed church suffered so grievously as they did for the sake of religion. Even the peace, which they obtained from Henry III. in the year 1576, was the source of that civil war, in which the powerful and ambitious house of Guise, instigated by the sanguinary suggestions of the Roman pontifs, aimed at nothing less than the extirpation of the royal family, and the utter ruin of the protestant religion; while the Huguenots, on the other hand, headed by leaders of the most heroic valour and the most illustrious rank, combated for their religion and for their sovereigns with various success. These dreadful commotions, in which both the contending parties committed such deeds as are yet, and always will be remembered with horror, were, at length, calmed by the fortitude and prudence of HENRY IV. This monarch, indeed, sacrificed the dictates of conscience to the suggestions of policy; and imagining, that his government could have no stable nor solid foundation, as long as he persisted in disowning the authority and jurisdiction of Rome, Vol. IV. he

Count Villars, in a letter written to the king of France, from the province of Languedoc, where he was lieutenant general, and dated the 11th of November, 1560, calls the riotous Calvinists of the Cevennes, Huguenots, and this is the first time that this term is found, in the registers of that province applied to the protestants.

[e] See the Histoire Eccles. des Eglises Reformées au Reyaume de France, published at Antwerp, in three volumes 8vo, in the year 1580, and supposed by many to have been written by Beza. The writers that have given the best accounts of the French reformed churches, their confession of faith, and their forms of worship and discipline, are enumerated by Kocherus, in his Bibliotheca Theolog. Symbolicae, p. 299.

CENT he renounced the Reformed religion, and made a XVI solemn and public profession of popery. Perpartil ceiving, however, on the other hand, that it was not possible either to extirpate or suppress entirely the protestant religion, he granted to its professors, by the famous edict drawn up at Nantes in the year 1598, the liberty of serving God according to their consciences [f], and a full security for the enjoyment of their civil rights and privileges, without persecution or molestation from any quarter [g].

In England and Scotland.

XVI. The church of Scotland acknowledges as its founder John Knox, the disciple of Calvin; and, accordingly, from its first reformation, it adopted the doctrine, rites, and form of ecclesiastical government established at Geneva. These it has always adhered to with the utmost uniformity, and maintained with the greatest jealousy and zeal; so that even in the last century the designs of those who attempted to introduce certain changes into its discipline and worship, were publicly opposed by the force of arms [b].

A quite different constitution of things is observable in the church of England, which could

never

terms, all the favours that had ever been granted to the protestants by other princes, and particularly by Henry III. To these privileges others were also added, which had never been granted, nor even demanded, before; such as a free admission to all employments of trust, honour and profit; the establishing courts and chambers in which the professors of the two religions were equal in number; and the permitting the children of protestants to be educated, without any molestation or constraint, in the public universities.

[g] Benoit, Histoire da l' Edit. de Nantes, tom. i. lib. v. p. 200.—Daniel, Hist. de France, tom. ix. p. 409.—Boulay, Hist. Academ. Paris. tom. vi.

[b] Salig. Hist. Aug. Confession. part II. lib. vi. cap. i. p. 403.— Dr Mosheim alludes, in this passage, to the attempts made under the reign of Charles II. to introduce episcopacy into Scotland.

never be brought to an entire compliance with CENT. the ecclesiastical laws of Geneva, and which re-Sect.III. tained, but for a short time, even those which it PARTIN adopted. It is well known, that the greatest part of those English, who first threw off the yoke of Rome, seemed much more inclined to the sentiments of LUTHER concerning the eucharist, the form of public worship, and ecclesiastical government, than to those of the Swiss churches. But the scene changed after the death of HENRY VIII. when, by the industrious zeal of CALVIN, and his disciples, more especially Peter Martyr, the cause of Lutheranism lost ground considerably; and the universities, schools, and churches became the oracles of Calvinism, which also acquired new votaries among the people from day to day [i]. Hence it happened, that when it was proposed, under the reign of EDWARD VI. to give a fixed and stable form to the doctrine and discipline of the church, Geneva was acknowledged as a sister church; and the theological system, there established by Calvin, was adopted, and rendered the public rule of faith in England. This, however, was done without any change of the form of episcopal government, which had already taken place, and was entirely different from that of Geneva; nor was this step attended with any alteration of several religious rites and ceremonies, which were looked upon as superstitious by the greatest part of the Reformed. This difference, however, between the two churches, though it appeared at first of little consequence, and, in the judgment even of Calvin, was esteemed an object of toleration and indulgence, was, nevertheless, in after-ages, a source of many calamities and dissensions, that were highly de-C c 2 trimental

<sup>[</sup>i] Loscheri Hist. Motuum, part II. lib. iii. cap. vii. p. 67.
—Salig. Hist. Aug. Confession. tom. ii. lib. vi. cap. iii. p. 317.

CENT trimental both to the civil and ecclesiastical con-XVI. Sect. III. stitution of Great Britain.

PARTII.
The rise of the Puritane.

XVII. The origin of these unhappy dissensions, which it has not as yet been possible entirely to heal, must be sought for in the conduct of those persecuted fugitives, who, to save their lives, their families, and their fortunes, from the bloody rage and inhuman tyranny of queen Mary, left the places of their nativity in the year 1554, and took refuge in Germany [k]. Of these fugitive congregations

[k] I cannot help mentioning the uncharitableness of the Lutherans, upon this occasion, who hated these unhappy exiles, because they were Sacramenterians (for so the Lutherans called those who denied Christ's bodily presence in the eucharist), and expelled from their cities such of the English Protestants as repaired to them, as a refuge from popish superstition and persecution. Such as sought for shelter in France, Geneva, and those parts of Switzerland and Germany where the Reformation had taken place, and where Lutheranism was not professed, were received with great humanity, and allowed places of public worship. But it was at Frankfort that the exiles were most numerous; and there began the contest and division which gave rise to that separation from the church of England which continues to this day. It is, however, a piece of justice due to the memory of the excellent Melancthon, to observe, that he warmly condemned this uncharitable treatment, and more especially , the indecent reproaches which the Lutherans cast upon the English martyrs who had sealed the Reformation with their calling them the Devil's martyrs. "Vociferantur quidam (says this amiable reformer) Martyres Anglicos esse Martyres Diaboli. Nolim hac contumalia officere sanctum spiritum in Latimero, qui annum octogesimum egressus fuit, et in aliis sanctis viris, quos novi." These are the words of this truly Christian Reformer, in one of his letters to Camerarius, Epist. lib. iv. p. 959. and in another of his letters, speaking of the burning of Burgius at Paris, he thus severely censures Westphal's intolerant principles: "Tales viros ait Westphalus esse Diaboli Martyres. Hanc judicii perversitatem quis non detestetur?" Ep. lib. ii. p. 387. Such were the humane and liberal sentiments of Melancthon, which have rendered his name so precious to the lovers of piety, probity, and moderation; while the zealots of his own church have treated his memory with obloquy, and composed dissertations de Indifferentismo Melancibonis. N.

congregations some performed divine worship CENT with the rites that had been authorized by ED-SECT. III. WARD VI.; while others preferred the Swiss me-PARTH. thod of worship as more recommendable on account of its purity and simplicity. The former were called Conformists, on account of their compliance with the ecclesiastical laws enacted by the prince now mentioned; and the denominations of Non-conformists and Puritans were given to the latter, from their insisting upon a form of worship, more exempt from superstition, and of a more pure kind, than the liturgy of EDWARD seemed to them to be. These denominations became permanent marks of distinction, which still continue to denote those different religious communities which divide the British nation. controversy concerning the ceremonial part of divine worship that had divided the exiles abroad, changed scenes, and was removed with them to England, when the auspicious succession of queen ELIZABETH to the throne permitted them to return to their native country. The hopes of enjoying liberty, and of promoting each their respective systems, increased their contests instead, of diminishing them; and the breach widened to such a degree, that the most sagacious and provident observers of things seemed to despair of seeing it healed. The wise queen, in her design to accomplish the reformation of the church, was fully resolved not to confine herself to the model exhibited by the protestants of Geneva, and their adherents to the Puritans; and, therefore, she recommended to the attention and imitation of the doctors, that were employed in this weighty and important matter, the practice and institutions of the primitive ages [1]. When her plan was put

[/] Dr Mosheim seems disposed, by this ambiguous expression of the primitive ages, to insinuate that queen Eli-C c 3 zabeth c ENT. put in execution, and the face of the church was SE T. III. changed and reformed by new rules of discipline, Act of Uniformity was issued forth, by which all her subjects were commanded to observe these rules, and to submit to the reformation of the church on the footing on which it was now placed by the queen, as its supreme visible head upon earth. The Puritans refused their assent to these proceedings; pleaded the dictates of their consciences in behalf of this refusal; and complained heavily, that the gross superstitions of popery, which they had looked upon as abrogated and abolished, were now revived, and even imposed by authority. They were not, indeed, all equally exasperated against the new constitution of the church; nor did they in effect carry their opposition to equal degrees of excess. The more violent demanded the total abrogation of all that had been done towards the establishment of a national religion, and required nothing less than that the church of England should be exactly modelled after that of Geneva. The milder and more moderate

> zabeth had formed a pure, rational, and evangelical plan of religious discipline and worship. It is, however, certain, that, instead of being willing to strip religion of the ceremonies which remained in it, she was rather inclined to bring the public worship still nearer the Romish ritual \*, and had a great propensity to several usages in the church of Rome, which were justly looked upon as superstitious. She thanked publicly one of her chaplains, who had preached in defence of the real presence; she was fond of images, and retained some in her private chapel †; and would undoubtedly have forbid the marriage of the clergy, if Cecil, her secretary, had not interposed ‡. Having appointed a committee of divines to review King Edward's liturgy, she gave them an order to strike out all offensive passages against the pope, and to make people easy about the corporal presence of Christ in the sacrament §.

<sup>\*</sup> Heylin, p. 124. † ld. ibid. † Strype's Life of Parker. p. 107. 108. 109. 

S Neal's Hist. of the Puritans, vol. i. p. 13.

derate Puritans were much more equitable in CENT. their demands, and only desired liberty of con-SECT.III. science, with the privilege of celebrating divine PARTIL worship in their own way. The queen did not judge it proper to grant to either the object of their requests, but rather intent upon the suppression of this troublesome sect (as she was used to call it), permitted its enemies to employ for that purpose all the resources of artifice, and all the severity of the laws. Thus was that form of religion established in Britain, which separated the English equally from the church of Rome on the one hand, and from the other churches which had renounced popery, on the other; but which, at the same time, laid a perpetual foundation for dissension and feuds, in that otherwise happy and prosperous nation [m].

XVIII. The incident that gave rise to these The sentiments and unhappy divisions, which were productive of so doctrine of many and such dreadful calamities, was a matter the Purior of very small moment, and which did not seem to affect, in any way, the interests of true religion and virtue. The chief leaders among the Puritans entertained a strong aversion to the vestments worn by the English clergy in the celements worn by the English clergy in the celements.

[m] No writer has treated this part of the Ecclesiastical History of Britain in a more ample and elegant manner than Daniel Neal, in his History of the Puritans, or Protestant Nonconformists, in four volumes 8vo. The first part of this laborious work was published at London, in the year 1732, and the latter part in 1738. The author, who was himself a Non-conformist, has not indeed been able to impose silence so far on the warm and impetuous spirit of party, as not to discover a certain degree of partiality in favour of his brethren. For, while he relates, in the most circumstantial manner, all the injuries the Puritans received from the bishops, and those of the established religion, he, in many places, diminishes, excuses, or suppresses, the faults and failings of these separatists. See also, for an account of the religious history of these times, Strype's Lives of the archbishops of Canterbury under Queen Elizabeth, viz. Parker, Grindal, and Whitgift.

SECT.III. been made use of in the times of popery, and PARTH seemed to renew the impressions that had been made upon the people by the Romish priests there

PARTIL seemed to renew the impressions that had been made upon the people by the Romish priests, they appeared to the Puritans in no other light than as the ensigns of Antichrist. The spirit of opposition, being once set on foot, proceeded, in its remonstrances, to matters of superior moment. The form of ecclesiastical government, established in England, was one of the first and main grievances of which the Puritans complained. They looked upon this form as quite different from that which had been instituted by Christ, the great lawgiver of the church; and, in conformity with the sentiments of Calvin, maintained, that, by the divine law, all the ministers of the gospel were absolutely equal in point of rank and authority. They did not indeed think it unlawful that a person, distinguished by the title of a bishop, or superintendant, should preside in the assembly of the clergy, for the sake of maintaining order and decency in their method of proceeding; but they thought it incongruous and absurd, that the persons invested with this character should be ranked, as the bishops had hitherto been, among the nobility of the kingdom, employed in civil and political affairs, and distinguished so eminently by their worldly opulence and power. This controversy was not carried on, however, with excessive animosity and zeal, as long as the English bishops pretended to derive their dignity and authority from no other source than the laws of their country, and pleaded a right, purely human, to the rank they held in church and state. flame broke out with redoubled fury in the year 1588, when BANCROFT, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, ventured to assert, that the order of bishops was superior to the body of presbyters, not in consequence of any human institution, but

by the express appointment of God himself [n]. C E N T. This doctrine was readily adopted by many, and Sect. III. the consequences that seemed naturally to flow PART II. from it in favour of episcopal ordination, happened in effect, and gave new fuel to the flame of controversy. For they who embraced the sentiments of BANCROFT, considered all ministers of the Gospel, who had not received ordination from a bishop, as irregularly invested with the sacred character; and also maintained, that the clergy, in those countries where there were no bishops, were destitute of the gifts and qualifications that were necessary to the exercise of the pastoral office, and were to be looked upon as inferior to the Roman-catholic priests.

XIX. All these things exasperated the Puritans, whose complaints, however, were not confined to the objects already mentioned. There were many circumstances that entered into their plan of reformation. They had a singular antipathy against cathedral churches, and demanded the abolition of the archdeacons, deans, canons, and other officials, that are supported by their lands and revenues. They disapproved of the pompous manner of worship that is generally observed in these churches, and looked, particularly, upon instrumental music, as improperly employed in the service of God. The severity of their zeal was also very great; for they were of opinion, that, not open profligates, but even persons whose piety was dubious, deserved to be excluded from

<sup>[</sup>n] See Strype's Life and Acts of John Whitgift, archbishop of Canterbury, p. 121. The first English Reformers admitted but two orders of church-officers to be of divine appointment, viz. bishops and deacons; a presbyter and a bishop, according to them, being but two names for the same office; but Dr Bancroft, in a sermon preached at Paul's cross, January 12, 1588, maintained, that the bishops of England were a distinct order from priests, and had superiority over them jure divino.

CENT from the communion of the church [o]; and XVI.

SPATI III. they endeavoured to justify the rigour of this decongregation, by observing that the church, being the congregation of the faithful, nothing was more incumbent on its ministers and rulers, than to watch against its being defiled by the presence of persons destitute of true faith and piety. They found, moreover, much subject of affliction and complaint in the rites and ceremonies that were imposed by the order of the queen, and the authority of her council [p]; among these were the festivals

festivals
[o] The Puritans justified themselves in relation to this
point, in a letter addressed from their prison, to queen Elizabeth, in the year 1592, by observing, that their sentiments concerning the persons subject to excommunication, and also concerning the effects and extent of that act of church discipline,
were conformable to those of all the reformed churches, and to
the doctrine and practice of the church of England in particular. They declared more especially, that, according to their
sense of things, the censure of excommunication deprived only of
spiritual privileges and comforts, without taking away either
liberty, goods, lands, government private or public, or any other
civil, or earthly commodity of this life; and thus they distinguished themselves from those furious and fanatical anabaptists,
who had committed such disorders in Germany, and some of
whom were now making a noise in England.

[p] By this council our author means, the High Commission Court, of which it is proper here to give some account, as its proceedings essentially belong to the Ecclesiastical History of England. This court took its rise from a remarkable clause in the act of supremacy, by which the queen and her successors were empowered to choose persons " to exercise, under her, all "manner of jurisdiction, privileges and pre-eminences, touch-"ing any spiritual or ecclesiastical jurisdiction within the realms " of England and Ireland, as also to visit, reform, redress, or-"der, correct and amend all errors, heresies, schisms, abuses, "contempts, offences, enormities whatsoever. Provided that "they have no power to determine any thing to be heresy, but "what has been adjudged to be so by the authority of the ca-" nonical scripture, or by the first four general councils, or any " of them; or by any other general council, wherein the same "was declared heresy by the express and plain words of ca-"nonical scripture, or such as shall hereafter be declared to " be heresy by the High Court of Parliament, with the asfestivals or bolidays that were celebrated in honour C E N T.

of the saints, the use of the sign of the cross more Sect.III.

especially in the sacrament of baptism, the nomi-PARTII.

nating godfathers and godmothers as sureties for the education of children whose parents were still living [q], and the doctrine relating to the validity of lay-baptism [r]. They disliked the reading

"sent of the clergy in convocation." Upon the authority of this clause, the queen appointed a certain number of commissioners for ecclesiastical causes, who, in many instances, ahused their power. The court they composed, was called The Court of High Commission, because it claimed a more extensive jurisdiction, and higher powers, than the ordinary courts of the bishops. Its jurisdiction reached over the whole kingdom, and was much the same with that which had been lodged in the single person of Lord Cromwell, vicar general of Henry VIII. These Commissioners were empowered to make enquiry, not only by the legal methods of juries, and witnesses, but by all other ways and means which they could devise, that is, by rack, torture, inquisition and imprisonment. They were vested with a right to examine such persons as they suspected, by administering to them an oath (not allowed of in their commission, and therefore called ex officio), by which they were obliged to answer all questions, and thereby might be obliged to accuse themselves or their most intimate friends. The fines they imposed were merely discretionary; the imprisonment to which they condemned was limited by no rule but their own pleasure; they imposed when they thought proper, new articles of faith on the clergy, and practised all the iniquities and cruelties of a real inquisition. See Rapin's and Hume's Histories of England, under the reign of Elizabeth, and Neal's History of the Puritans, passim.

[q] Other rites and customs displeasing to the Puritans, and omitted by our author, were, kneeling at the sacrament of the Lord's supper, bowing at the name of Jesus, giving the ring in marriage, the prohibition of marriage during certain times of the year, and the licensing it for money, as also the confirma-

tion of children by episcopal imposition of hands.

is pueros recens natos ab aliis, quam sacerdotibus, initiari patie-bantur." The Roman catholics, who look upon the external rite of baptism as absolutely necessary to salvation, allow consequently, of its being performed by a lay-man, or a midwife, where a clergyman is not at hand, nay (if such a ridiculous thing may be mentioned) by a surgeon, where a still birth is apprehended.

CENTing of the apocryphal books in the church; and, 8 x c T. III. with respect to set forms of prayer, although they PART II did not go so far as to insist upon their being en-

tirely abolished, yet they pleaded for a right to every minister, of modifying, correcting, and using them in such a manner, as might tend most to the advancement of true piety, and of addressing the Deity in such terms as were suggested by their inward feelings, instead of those that were dictated by others. In a word, they were of opinion, that the government and discipline of the church of England ought to have been modelled after the ecclesiastical laws and institutions of Geneva, and that no indulgence was to be shewn to those ceremonies or practices, which bore the smallest resemblance of the discipline or worship of the church of Rome.

The principles on which the Puritans their sentiments coneerning ecclesiastical government and divine worship.

XX. These sentiments, considered in themselves, seemed neither susceptible of a satisfactory defence, nor of a complete refutation. maintained solidity or falsehood depended upon the principles from whence they were derived; and no regular controversy could be carried on upon these matters, until the contending parties adopted some common and evident principles, by which they might corroborate their respective systems. It is only by an examination of these, that it can be known on what side truth lies, and what degree of utility or importance can be attributed to a contest of this nature. The principles laid down by the queen's commissioners on the one hand, and the

> apprehended. The church of England though it teacheth in general, that none ought to baptize but men dedicated to the service of God, yet doth not esteem null baptism performed by laicks or women, because it makes a difference between what is essential to a sacrament, and what is requisite to the regular way of using it. The Puritans, that they might neither prescribe, nor even connive at a practice that seemed to be founded on the absolute necessity of infant baptism, would allow that see cred rite to be performed by the clergy alone.

the Puritans on the other, were indeed very dif-C E N T. ferent.

For in the first place, The former maintained, PART II. that the right of reformation, that is, the privilege of removing the corruptions and of correcting the errors that may have been introduced into the doctrine, discipline, or worship of the church, is lodged in the sovereign, or civil magistrate alone; while the latter denied, that the power of the magistrate extended so far, and maintained, that it was rather the business of the clergy to restore religion to its native dignity and lustre. This was the opinion of Calvin, as has been already observed.

Secondly, The queen's commissioners maintained, that the rule of proceeding, in reforming the doctrine or discipline of the church, was not to be derived from the sacred writings alone, but also from the writings and decisions of the fathers in the primitive ages. The Puritans, on the contrary, affirmed, that the inspired word of God being the pure and only fountain of wisdom and truth, it was from thence alone that the rules and directions were to be drawn, which were to guide the measures of those who undertook to purify the faith, or to rectify the discipline and worship, of the church; and that the ecclesiastical institutions of the early ages, as also the writings of the ancient doctors, were absolutely destitute of all sort of authority.

Thirdly, The queen's commissioners ventured to assert, that the church of Rome was a true church, though corrupt and erroneous in many points of doctrine and government; that the Roman pontif, though chargeable with temerity and arrogance in assuming to himself the title and jurisdiction of head of the whole church, was, nevertheless, to be esteemed a true and lawful bishop; and, consequently, that the ministers ordained

C E N T ordained by him were qualified for performing S R C T. III. the pastoral duties. This was a point which the PART II. English bishops thought it absolutely necessary to maintain, since they could not otherwise claim the honour of deriving their dignities, in an uninterrupted line of succession, from the apostles. But the Puritans entertained very different notions of this matter; they considered the Romish hierarchy as a system of political and spiritual tyranny, that had justly forfeited the title and privileges of a true church; they looked upon its pontif as Antichrist, and its discipline as vain, superstitious, idolatrous, and diametrically opposite to the injunctions of the gospel; and in consequence of this they renounced its communion, and regarded all approaches to its discipline and worship as highly dangerous to the cause of true religion.

Fourthly, The court commissioners considered as the best and most perfect form of ecclesiastical government, that which took place during the first four or five centuries; they even preferred it to that which had been instituted by the apostles, because, as they alleged, our Saviour and his apostles had accommodated the Form, mentioned in Scripture, to the feeble and infant state of the church, and left it to the wisdom and discretion of future ages to modify it in such a manner as might be suitable to the triumphant progress of Christianity, the grandeur of a national establishment, and also to the ends of civil policy. The Puritans asserted, in opposition to this, that the rules of church government were clearly laid down in the Holy Scriptures, the only standard of spiritual discipline [s]; and that the apostles, in establishing

imposed as necessary, but what was expressly contained in the holy scriptures, or deduced from them by necessary consequence.

establishing the first Christian church on the Aris-cent. To tocratical plan that was then observed in the Jew-Sect.III. ish Sanhedrim, designed it as an unchangeable mo-PARTII. del, to be followed in all times, and in all places.

Lastly, The court reformers were of opinion, that things indifferent, which are neither commanded nor forbidden by the authority of Scripture, such as the external rites of public worship, the kind of vestments that are to be used by the clergy, religious festivals, and the like, might be ordered, determined, and rendered a matter of obligation by the authority of the civil magistrate; and that, in such a case, the violation of his commands would be no less criminal than an act of rebellion against the laws of the state. The Puritans alleged, in answer to this assertion, that it was an indecent prostitution of power to impose, as necessary and indispensable, those things which CHRIST had left in the class of matters indifferent; since this was a manifest incroachment upon that liberty, with which the Divine Saviour had made us free. To this they added, that such rites and ceremonies as had been abused to idolatrous purposes, and had a manifest tendency to revive the impressions of superstition and popery in the minds of men, could by no means be considered as indifferent, but deserved to be rejected without hesitation as impious and profane. Such, in their estimation, were the religious ceremonies of ancient times, whose abrogation was refused by the queen and her council [t].

XXI. This

quence. They maintained still farther, that supposing it proved, that all things necessary to the good government of the church could not be deduced from Holy Scripture, yet that the discretionary power of supplying this defect was not vested in the civil magistrate, but in the spiritual officers of the church.

the account of this controversy given by Mr Neal, in his

History

CENT. XVI. SECT. 111. The Browniets. a sect of the Puritans.

XXI. This contest between the commissioners of the court, and their opponents, who desired a PARTIL more complete reformation than had yet taken place, would have been much more dangerous in its consequences, had that party, that was distinguished by the general denomination of Puritans, been united in their sentiments, views, and measures. But the case was quite otherwise. For this large body, composed of persons of different ranks, characters, opinions, and intentions, and unanimous in nothing but their antipathy against the forms of doctrine and discipline that were established by law, was, all of a sudden, divided into a variety of sects; of which some spread abroad the delusions of enthusiasm, which had turned their own brains; while others displayed their folly in inventing new and whimsical plans of church-government. The most famous of all these sects was that which was formed, about the year 1581, by Robert Brown, an insinuating man, but very unsettled and inconsistent in his views and notions of things. This innovator did not differ, in point of doctrine, either from the church of England, or from the rest of the Puritans; but he had formed new and singular notions concerning the nature of the church, and the rules of

> History of the Puritans. This latter adds a sixth article, not of debate, but of union, "Both parties (says he) agreed too " well in asserting the necessity of an uniformity of public worship, and of calling in the sword of the magistrate for the sup-" port and defence of their several principles, which they made " an ill use of in their turns, as they could grasp the power in-"to their hands. The standard of uniformity, according to "the bishops, was the queen's supremacy, and the laws of "the land; according to the Puritans, the decrees of pro-"vincial and national synods, allowed and enforced by the "civil magistrate: but neither party were for admitting that " liberty of conscience, and freedom of profession, which is eve-" ry man's right, as far as is consistent with the peace of the " government under which he lives."

of ecclesiastical government. He was for divid-CENT ing the whole body of the faithful into separate SECT.III. societies or congregations, not larger than those PARTIL. which were formed by the apostles in the infancy of Christianity; and maintained, that such a number of persons, as could be contained in an ordinary place of worship, ought to be considered as a church, and enjoy all the rights and privileges that are competent to an ecclesiastical community. These small societies he pronounced independent, jure divino, and entirely exempt from the jurisdiction of the bishops, in whose hands the court placed the reins of spiritual government; and also from that of synods, which the Puritans regarded as the supreme visible sources of ecclesiastical authority. He also maintained, that the power of governing each congregation, and providing for its welfare, resided in the people; and that each member had an equal share in this direction, and an equal right to order matters for the good of the whole society [u]. Hence all points both of doctrine and discipline were submitted to the dis-. cussion of the whole congregation, and whatever was supported by a majority of votes passed into a law. It was the congregation also that elected certain of the brethren to the office of pastors, to perform the duty of public instruction, and the several branches of divine worship, reserving, however, to themselves the power of dismissing Vol. IV.  $\mathbf{D} \mathbf{d}$ these

Term, one church was not entitled to exercise jurisdiction over another; but each might give the other counsel or admonition, if they walked in a disorderly manner, or abandoned the capital truths of religion; and if the offending church did not receive the admonition, the others were to withdraw, and publicative disown them as a church of Christ. On the other hand, the powers of their church officers were confined within the narrow limits of their own society. The pastor of a church might not administer the sacrament of baptism, or the Lord's supper, to any but those of his own communion.

CENT these ministers, and reducing them to the condi-SECT. III. tion of private members, whenever they should think such a change conducive to, the spiritual advantage of the community. For these pastors were not esteemed superior, either in sanctity or rank, to the rest of their brethren, nor distinguished from them by any other circumstance than the liberty of preaching and praying, which they derived from the free will and consent of the congregation. It is, besides, to be observed, that their right of preaching was, by no means, of an exclusive nature, or peculiar to them alone; since any member, that thought proper to exhort or instruct the Brethren, was abundantly indulged in the liberty of prophesying to the whole assembly. Accordingly, when the ordinary teacher or pastor had finished his discourse, all the other Brethren were permitted to communicate in public their sentiments and illustrations upon any useful or edifying subject, on which they supposed they could thrownew light. In aword, Brown aimed at nothing less than modelling the form of the church after that infant community that was founded by the apostles, without once considering the important changes both in the religious and civil state of the world since that time, the influence that these changes must necessarily have upon all ecclesiastical establishments, and the particular circumstances of the Christian church, in consequence of its former corruptions and its late reformation. And, if his notions were crude and chimerical, the zeal with which he and his associates maintained and propagated them was intemperate and extravagant in the highest degree. For he affirmed, that all communion was to be broken off with those religious societies that were founded upon a different plan from his, and treated, more especially the church of England. as a spurious church, whose ministers

were

were unlawfully ordained, whose discipline was CENT. popish and antichristian, and whose sacraments and Sect. III. institutions were destitute of all efficacy and vir-PARTIL tue. The sect of this hot-headed innovator, not being able to endure the severe treatment which their opposition to the established forms of religious government and worship had drawn upon them, from an administration that was not distinguished by its mildness and indulgence, retired into the Netherlands, and founded churches at Middleburg in Zealand, and at Amsterdam and Leyden in the province of nolland; but their establishments were neither solid nor durable [x]. Their founder returned into England, and, having renounced his principles of separation, took orders in the established church, and obtained a benefice [y]. The Puritan exiles, whom he thus abandoned, disagreed among themselves, split into parties, and their affairs declined from day to day [z]. engaged the wiser part of them to mitigate the severity of their founder's plan, and to soften the rigour of his uncharitable decisions; and hence arose the community of the Independents, or Congregational Brethren, which still subsists, and of D d 2 which

are incorporated into the national Dutch church, and their pastors are members of the Dutch synod, which is sufficient to show that there are at this time no traces of Brownism or Independency in these churches. The church at Leyden, where Robinson had fixed the standard of independency about the year 1595, was dispersed; and it is very remarkable, that a part of this church transplanting themselves into America, laid the foundation of the colony of New-England.

rigour of his principles, but also the gravity of his former morals; for he led a very idle and dissolute life. See Neal's History of the Puritans, vol. i. p. 376.

CENT. which an account shall be given in the history of

Szer III. the following century.

PARTII. The state of the reformed church in lands.

XXII. In the Belgic provinces, the friends of the Reformation seemed for a long time uncertain, whether they should embrace the communion of the Swiss, or of the Lutheran church. the Nether Each of these had zealous friends and powerful patrons [a]. The matter was, nevertheless, decided in the year 1571, and the religious system of Calvin was publicly adopted. For the Belgic confession of faith, which then appeared [b], was drawn up in the spirit, and almost in the terms, of that which was received in the Reformed churches in France, and differed considerably, in several respects, from the confession of Augsburg, but more especially in the article relating to Christ's presence in the eucharist [c]. This will not appear surprising to those who consider the vicinity of the French to the Low-countries; the number of French protestants that were constantly passing or sojourning there; the extraordinary reputation of Calvin, and of the academy of Geneva; as also, the indefatigable zeal of his disciples in extending the limits of their church, and propagating, throughout all Europe, their system of doctrine, discipline, and government. as it may, from this period, the Dutch, who had before been denominated Lutherans, assumed universally the title of Reformed, in which also they imitated the French, by whom this title had been first invented and adopted. It is true, indeed, that, as long as they were subject to the Spanish yoke, the fear of exposing themselves to the displeasure of

<sup>[</sup>a] Loscheri Histor. Motuum, part III, lib. v. cap.iv. p. 74.

<sup>[</sup>b] Kocheri Biblioth. Theolog. Symbolica, p. 216.

<sup>[</sup>e] See Brandt's History of the Reformation of the Netherlands (written in Dutch), vol. i. book v. p. 253.

of that sovereign induced them to avoid the title C P N T. of Reformed, and to call themselves Associates of Sect. III. the Brethren of the Confession of Augsburg. For the PARTIL Lutherans were esteemed, by the Spanish court, much better subjects than the disciples of CALVIN, who, on account of the tumults that had lately prevailed in France, were supposed to have a greater propensity to mutiny and sedition [d].

XXIII. The light of the Reformation was first And in Pobrought from Saxony into Poland by the disciples of LUTHER. Some time after this happy period, the Bohemian Brethren, whom the Romish clergy had expelled from their country, as also several Helyetic doctors, propagated their sentiments among the Polanders. Some congregations were also founded in that Republic by the Anabaptists, Anti-Trinitarians, and other sectaries [e]. Hence it was, that three distinct communities, each of which adopted the main principles of the Reformation, were to be found in Poland, viz. the Bohemian Brethren, the Lutherans, and Swiss. These communities, in order to defend themselves with the greater vigour against their common enemies, formed among themselves a kind of confederacy, in a synod held at Sendomirin the year 1570, upon certain conditions, which were comprehended in the Confession of Faith, that derives its  $Dd_3$ title

The state of the Reformation of the Netherlands, (p. 254, 255.) which is written in Dutch, and is, indeed, a most curious and valuable work, notwithstanding the author's partiality towards the cause of Arminianism, of which he was one of the most respectable patrons.

[e] Loscheri Hist. Motuum, part III. lib. v. p. 36—Salig. Hist. Aug. Confession. tom. ii. lib. vi. cap. iii, iv, v. p. 516.—Regenvolcii Hist. Eccles. Sclavonicar. lib. i. cap. xvi. p. 71.—Salignac, Hist. de Pologne, tom. v. p. 40—Kautz, Pracipua Relig. Evangel. in Polonia Fata, published in 4to at Hamburgh.

in the year 1738.

Ttitle from the city now mentioned [f]. But as XVI this association seemed rather adapted to accelerate the cause of truth, the points in debate between the Lutherans and the Reformed being expressed in this reconciling confession in vague and ambiguous terms, it was soon after this warmly oppos-

guous terms, it was soon after this warmly opposed by many of the former, and was entirely annulled in the following century. Many attempts have, indeed, been made to revive it; but they have not answered the expectations of those who have employed their dexterity and zeal in this matter. In *Prussia*, the *Reformed* gained ground

after the death of Luther and Melancthon, and founded the flourishing churches that still-subsist

in that country [g].

The Bohemian Brethren.

XXIV. The Bohemian, or, as they are otherwise called, the Moravian Brethren, who descended from the better sort of Hussites, and were distinguished by several religious institutions of a singular nature, and well adapted to guard their community against the reigning vices and corruptions of the times, had no sooner heard of Lu-THER's design of reforming the church, than they sent deputies, in the year 1522, to recommend themselves to his friendship and good offices. succeeding times, they continued to discover the same zealous attachment to the Lutheran churches in Saxony, and also to those that were founded inother countries. These offers could not be well accepted without a previous examination of their veligious sentiments and principles. And, indeed, this

<sup>[</sup>f] See Dan. Ernest. Jablonsky, Historia Consensus Sendomerensis, published at Berlin in 4to, in the year 1731; as also the Epistola Apologetica of the same author, in defence of the work now mentioned, against the objections of an anonymous author.

<sup>[</sup>g] Loscheri Historia Motuum, part III. lib. vi. cap. i. p. 216.

this examination turned to their advantage; for CENT' neither Luther nor his disciples found any thing, XVI. either in their doctrine or discipline, that was, in PART II. any great measure, liable to censure; and though he could not approve in every particular, of their Confession of Faith, which they submitted to his judgment, yet he looked upon it as an object of toleration and indulgence [b]. Nevertheless, the death of Luther, and the expulsion of these Brethren from their country in the year 1547 gave a new turn to their religious connections; and great numbers of them, more especially of those who retired into Poland, embraced the religious sentiments and discipline of the Reformed. The attachment of the Bohemians to the Lutherans seemed, indeed, to be revived by the Convention of Sendomir, already mentioned; but as the articles of union, that were drawn up in that assembly, lost all their force and authority in a little time, the Bohemians, by degrees, entered one and all into the communion of the Swiss church [t]. This union was at first formed on the express condition, that the two churches should continue to be governed by their respective laws and institutions, and should have separate places of public worship; but, in the following century, all remains of dissension were removed in the synods held at Astrog in the years 1620 and 1627, and the two congregations were formed into one, under the title of The Church of the D d 4 United

[b] See a German work of Carpzovius, entitled, Nachricht won den Bohmischen Brudern, p. 46. as also Jo. Chr. Kocheri Bibliotheca Theologiæ Symbolicæ, p. 76.

<sup>[</sup>i] Besides Comenius, Camerarius, and Lasitius, who have written professedly the History of the Bohemian Brethren, see Loscheri Historia Motuum, part III. lib. v. cap. vi. p. 99.—Salig. Hist. Confession. Aug. tom. ii. lib. vi. cap. iii. p. 520.—Ad. Regenvolscii Hist. Eccles. Sclavonica. lib. i. cap. xiii, xiv. xv.

CENT. United Brethren. In this coalition the reconciled XVI. parties shewed to each other reciprocal marks of PARTII toleration and indulgence; for the external form of the church was modelled after the discipline of the Bohemian Brethren, and the articles of faith were taken from the creed of the Calvinists [k].

The Waldenses, Hungarians, and Transylvanians.

XXV. The descendants of the Waldenses, who lived shut up in the vallies of Piedmont, were naturally led, by their situation in the neighbourhood of the French, and of the Republic of Geneva, to embrace the doctrines and rites of the Reformed church. So far down, however, as the year 1630, they retained a considerable part of their ancient discipline and tenets; but the plague, that broke out that year having destroyed the greatest part of this unhappy people, and among the rest a considerable number of their pastors and clergy, they addressed themselves to the French churches for spiritual succour; and the new doctors, sent from thence, made several changes in the discipline and doctrine of the Waldenses, and rendered them conformable, in every respect, with those of the protestant churches in France [!].

The Tungarians and Transylvanians were engaged to renounce the errors and superstitions of the church of Rome by the writings of LUTHER, and the ministry of his disciples. But some time after Matthias Devay, and other doctors, began to introduce, in a secret manner, among these nations, the doctrines of the Swiss churches in relation to the eucharist, as also their principles of ecclesiastical government. This doctrine, and these principles, were propagated in a more open and

<sup>[17]</sup> Regenvolscius, loc. citat. lib. i. cap. xi. p. 120.

chap. xxxiii. p. 205, 206.—Abr. Sculetti Annales Renovati Eear yeld. p. 204.—Dan. Gerdes, Hist. Renovati Evangelii, tom. ii. p. 401.

and public manner towards the year 1550, by CENT.

SZEGEDIN and other Calvinist teachers, whose mi-Szcz. III. nistry was attended with remarkable success. This PARTIL change was followed by the same dissensions that had broke out in other countries on like occasions; and these dissensions grew into an open schism among the friends of the Reformation in these provinces, which the lapse of time has rather con-

firmed than diminished [m].

XXVI. After the solemn publication of the Of the Lufamous Form of Concord, of which an account has theren been already given, many German churches, of that emthe Lutheran communion, dissolved their original braced Calbonds, and embraced the doctrine and discipline of Calvin. Among these we may place the churches of Nassau, Hanau, and Isenburg, with several others of less note. In the year 1595, the princes of Anhalt, influenced by the counsels of Wolfgang Amlingius, renounced also the profession of Lutheranism, and introduced into their dominions the religious tenets and rites of Geneva; this revolution, however, produced a long and warm controversy between the Lutherans and the inhabitants of the principality [n]. The doctrines of

[m] Pauli Debrezeni Historia Eccles. Reform. in Hungar. et Transylvan. lib. ii. p. 64. 72. 98. Unschuld. Nachrict. A. 1738. p. 1076.—Georg. Haneri Historia Eccles. Transylv.

published at Francfort in 12mo, in the year 1694.

[n] See for an account of this matter the German work of Bechman, which is thus entitled Histoire des Hause Anhalt, vol. ii. p. 133. and that of Kraft, which bears the title of Ausferliche Histoire von dem Exorcismo, p. 428. 497. F Though the princes professed Calvinism, and introduced Calvinist ministers in all the churches, where they had the right of patronage, yet the people were left free in their choice; and the noblemen and their vassals, that were attached to Lutheranism, had secured to them the unrestrained exercise of their religion. By virtue of a convention made in 1679, the Lutherans were permitted to prect new churches. The Zerbst line, with the greatest part of its subjects, profess Lutheranism; but the three other lines, with their respective territories, are Calvinists.

CENT. of the Calvinist or Reformed church, more espe-SECT. III. cially those that relate to the eucharist, were also PART II. introduced into Denmark, towards the conclusion

of this century; for, in this kingdom, the disciples and votaries of Melancthon, who had always discovered a strong propensity to a union between the protestant churches, were extremely numerous, and they had at their head Nicholas HEMMINGIUS, a man eminent for his piety and learning. But the views of this divine, and the schemes of his party, being discovered much sooner than they expected, by the vigilant defenders of the Lutheran cause, their plans were disconcerted [o], and the progress of Calvinism was successfully opposed by the Lutheran ministers, seconded by the countenance and authority

of the sovereign [p].

The diversity that reigned among the various branches of the Reformed church.

XXVII. It must not however be imagined, that the different nations that embraced the communion of the Calvinist church, adopted, at the same time, without exception, all its tenets, rites, and institutions. This universal conformity was, indeed, ardently desired by the Helvetic doctors; but their desires, in this respect, were far from being accomplished. The English, as is sufficiently known, rejected the forms of ecclesiastical government and religious worship that were adopted by the other Reformed churches, and could not be persuaded to receive, as public and national articles of faith, the doctrines that were propagated in Switzerland, in relation to the sacrament

[o] Erici Pontoppidani Annal. Ecclesiæ Danisæ Diplomati-

ci, tom. iii. p. 57.

<sup>[</sup>p] That is (for our author consistently with truth can mean no more) the designs, that were formed to render Calvinism the national and established religion proved abortive. certain, however, that Calvinism made a very considerable progress in Denmark, and has still a great number of votaries in that kingdom.

carrament of the Lord's Supper and the Divine C E N T. decrees [q]. The protestants in Holland, Bremen, S I C T. III. Poland, Hungary, and the Palatinate, followed, PART II. indeed, the French and Helvetic churches in their sentiments concerning the eucharist, in the simplicity of their worship, and in the r principles of ecclesiastical polity; but not in their notions of predestination, which intricate doctrine they left undefined, and submitted to the free examination and private judgment of every individual [r]. It may farther be affirmed, that, before

[9] It is true, indeed, that the doctrine of Zuingle, who represented the bread and wine as nothing more than the extert nal signs of the death of Christ, was not adopted by the church of England; but the doctrine of Calvin was embraced by that church, and is plainly taught in the xxviiith article of its faith. As to what relates to the doctrine of the divine decrees, Dr Mosheim is equally mistaken. The xviith article of the church of England is, as bishop Burnet candidly acknowledges, framed according to St Augustin's doctrine, which scarcely differs at all from that of Calvin; and though it be expressed with a certain latitude that renders it susceptible of a mitigated interpretation, yet it is very probable, that those who penned it were patrons of the doctrine of Absolute Decrees. The very cautions, that are subjoined to this article, intimate, that Calvinism was what it was meant to establish. It is certain, that the Calvinistical doctrine of predestination prevailed among the first English Reformers, the greatest part of whom were, at least, Subiansariens; in the reign of Queen Elizabeth this doctrine was predominant, but after that period it lost ground imperceptibly, and was renounced by the church of England in the reign of king Charles I. Some members of that church still adhered, nevertheless, to the tenets of Calvin, and maintained, not only that the thirty-nine articles were Calvinistical, but also affirmed, that they were not susceptible of being interpreted in that latitude for which the Arminians contended. These episcopal votaries of Calvinism were called Doctrinal Puritans. Exposition of the Seventeenth Article, &c. and Neal's History of the Puritans, vol. i. p. 579.

[r] See Grotii Apologet. eorum, qui Hollandiæ ante mutationem, A. 1618, præfuerunt, cap. iii. p. 54. Ed. Paris. 1640, in 12mo. CENT fore the synod of Dort [s], no Reformed church Sect. III. had obliged its members, by any special law, or PART II article of faith, to adhere to the doctrine of the

church of Geneva relating to the primary causes of the salvation of the elect, or the ruin of the reprobate. It is true indeed, that in the places now mentioned, the greatest part of the Reformed doctors fell by degrees, of their own accord, into the Calvinistical opinion concerning these intricate points; and this was principally owing, no doubt, to the great reputation of the academy of Geneva, which was generally frequented, in this century, by those among the Reformed who were candidates for the ministry.

The doctrine adopted by the Reformed churches. XXVIII. The books of the Old and New Testament are regarded by the Reformed churches as the only sources of Divine Truth; it must however be observed, that, to their authority, the church of England adds that of the writings of the Fathers during the first five centuries [t]. The Reformed and the Lutherans agree in maintaining that the Holy Scriptures are infallible in all things; that, in matters of which the knowledge is necessary to salvation, they are clear, full, and complete; and also that they are to be explained

If [s] It was in this famous synod, that was assembled in the year 1618, and of which we shall have occasion to give a more ample account in the history of the following century, that the doctrine of Calvin was fixed as the national and established religion of the Seven united Provinces.

church of England, which implies its considering the writings of the Fathers of the first five centuries, as an authoritative criterion of religious truth. There is, indeed, a clause in the Act of Uniformity, passed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, declaring that her delegates, in ecclesiastical matters, should not determine any thing to be heresy, but what was adjudged so by the authority of scripture, or by the first four general councils; and this has perhap, misled Dr Mosheim in the passage to which this note refers. Much respect, indeed, and perhaps too much, has been paid to the Fathers; but that has always been a matter of eboice, and not of obligation.

by themselves, and not either by the dictates of CENT. human reason, or the decisions of the ancient XVI. Several of the doctors among the for-PART mer have indeed employed too freely the sagacity of their natural understanding, in explaining those divine mysteries that are contained in the Gospel; and this circumstance has induced many to imagine, that the Reformed adopted two sources of religion, two criterions of divine truth, viz. the Holy Scriptures and Human Reason. But perhaps it will be found, that, in this respect, doctors of both communions have sometimes gone too far, being led on by the spirit of controversy, and animated with the desire of victory. For, if we except the singular tenets of some individuals, it may be affirmed with truth, that the Lutherans and the Reformed are unanimous in the matter now under consideration. They both maintain, that contradictory propositions cannot be the objects of faith; and consequently that all doctrines that contain ideas and notions that are repugnant to, and mutually destroy each other, must be false and incredible. It is true, indeed, that the Reformed sometimes use this principle in a contentious manner, to overturn certain points of the Lutheran system, which they have thought proper to reject [u].

XXIX. The Reformed, if by this denomination The points we understand those who embrace the senti-in which the Rements of Calvin, differ entirely from the Luther-formed and ans in the following points:

Lutherans disagree

Lord's supper. The Lutherans affirm that the body

[u] Our author has here undoubtedly in view the Luthetan doctrine of Consubstantiation, which supposes the same extended body to be totally present in different places at one and the same time. To call this a gross and glaring contradiction, seems rather the dictate of common sense, than the suggestion of a contentious spirit. SECT.III. in this sacrament, though in an incomprehensible manner; and that they are really exhibited both to the righteous and the wicked, to the worthy and to the unworthy, receiver. The Reformed hold, on the contrary, that the man Christ is only 'present in this ordinance by the external signs of bread and wine; though it must, at the same time, be observed, that this matter is differently explained and represented in the writings of their doctors.

adly, In their doctrine of the eternal decrees of God, respecting man's salvation. The Lutherans maintain, that the divine decrees respecting the salvation or misery of men are founded upon a previous knowledge of their sentiments and characters; or, in other words, that God, foreseeing from all eternity the faith or incredulity of different persons, had reserved eternal happiness for the faithful, and eternal misery for the unbelieving and disobedient. The Reformed entertain different sentiments concerning this intricate point. They consider the divine decrees as free and unconditional, and as founded on the will of God, which is limited by no superior order, and which is above all laws.

3.ily, Concerning some religiouss rites and institutions, which the Reformed consider as bordering upon superstition, or tending, at least, to promote it; while the Lutherans view them in another light, and represent all of them as tolerable, and some of them as useful. Such are the use of images in the churches, the distinguishing vestments of the clergy, the private confession of sins, the use of wafers in the administration of the Lord's Supper, the form of exorcism in the celebration of baptism, and other ceremonies of like moment. The Reformed doctors insist on the abolition of all these rites and institutions; and that

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that upon this general principle, that the discipline CENT. and worship of the Christian church ought to be SECT.III. restored to their primitive simplicity, and freed PARTIL from the human inventions and additions that were employed by superstition in the times of ignorance, to render them more striking to the deluded multitude.

XXX. The few heads of difference, between the The motwo communions, which have been now briefly ment and pointed out, have furnished an inexhaustible fund of these of controversy to the contending parties, and differences. been drawn out into a multitude of intricate questions, and subjects of debate, that, by consequences fairly or injudiciously deduced, have widened the scene of contention, and extended to almost all the important truths of religion. Thus the debate concerning the manner in which the body and blood of CHRIST are present in the Eucharist, opened to the disputants a large field of inquiry, in which the nature and fruits of the institutions called Sacraments, the majesty and glory of Christ's bumanity, together with the communication of the divine perfections to it, and that inward frame of spirit that is required in the worship that is addressed to the divine Saviour, were carefully examined. In like manner, the controversy, which had for its object the divine decrees, led the doctors, by whom it was carried on, into the most subtile and profound researches concerning the nature of the divine attributes, particularly those of justice and goodness, the doctrines of fate or necessity, the connexion between human liberty and divine prescience, the extent of God's love to mankind, and of the benefits that arise from the merits of Christ as mediator, the operations of that divine spirit or power that rectifies the wills and sanctifies the affections of men, the perseverance of the elect in their covenant with God, and in a state of salvation, and other

CENT other points of great moment and importance.

XVI. The subject of debate, that was drawn from the Sect. III. use of certain external rites and ceremonies in religious worship, was also productive of several questions and enquiries. For besides the researches into the origin and antiquity of certain institutions to which it gave occasion, it naturally led to a discussion of the following important questions: viz. " What are the special marks that characterize things INDIFFERENT? -- How far is it lawful to comply with the demands of an adversary, whose opposition is only directed against things esteemed indifferent in their own nature?—What is the extent of Christian liberty?—Whether or no it be lawful to retain, in condescension to the prejudices of the people, or with a view to their benefit, certain ancient rites and institutions, which, although they carry a superstitious aspect, may nevertheless be susceptible of a favourable and rational interpretation?

To whom governing belongs.

XXXI. It has always been a question much the right of debated among protestants, and more especially the church in England and Holland, where it has excited great commotions and tumults, to whom the right of governing the church, and the power of deciding in religious matters, properly belong? This controversy has been determined in favour of those who maintain, that the power of deciding, in matters' of religious doctrine, discipline, and government, is, by the appointment of Christ himself, vested in the church, and therefore ought by no means to be intrusted with, or exercised by the civil magistrate; while, at the same time, they grant, that it is the business of the latter to assist the church with his protection and advice, to convoke and preside in its synods and councils, to take care that the clergy do not attempt to carry on any thing that may be prejudicial to the interests of the state, and, by his authority, to confirm the validity, and secure the execution, of the ecclesiastical

ecclesiastical laws enacted by the church under CENT. his inspection. It is true, that from the time of XVI.

Henry VIII. the Kings of England consider PART IL themselves as supreme heads of the church, and that in relation to its spiritual, as well as its temporal concerns; and it is plain enough, that, on the strength of this important title, both Henry VIII. and his son Edward assumed an extensive authority and jurisdiction in the church, and looked upon their spiritual power, as equal to that which had been unworthily enjoyed by the Roman pontif [w]. But Queen Elizabeth receded considerably from these high pretensions, and diminished the spiritual power of her successors, by declaring that the jurisdiction of the kings of England extended only to the ministers of religion, and not to religion itself; to the rulers of the church, and not to the church itself; or, in other words, that the persons of the clergy were alone subject to their civil authority [x]. Accordingly, we see that the constitution of the church of England resembles perfectly that of the state, and that there is a striking analogy between the civil and ecclesiastical government established in that country. The clergy, consisting of the upper and lower houses of convocation, are immediately assembled by the archbishop of Canterbury, in consequence of an order from the sovereign, and propose in these meetings, by common consent, such measures as seem necessary to the well-being of the church; these measures are laid before the king and parliament, and derive from their ap-Vol. IV. Еe probation

[w] See Neal's History of the Puritans, vol. i. p. 11.

<sup>[</sup>x] See Courayel, Supplement aux deux Ouvrages pour le Desense de la validité des Ordinations Anglicanes, chap. xv. p. 486.

This must be understood with many restrictions, if it can be at all admitted. The whole tenor of Queen Elizabeth's reign shewed plainly that she did not pretend to less power in religious matters than any of her predecessors.

C F N T. probation and authority the force of laws [y].

S E C T. III. But it must be acknowledged, that this matter

P A R T II. has given occasion to much altercation and debate; nor has it been found easy to fix the ex-

tent of the jurisdiction and prerogatives of these great bodies in a manner conformable to their respective pretensions, since the king and his council explain them in one way, and the clergy, more especially those who are zealous for the spiritual supremacy and independency of the church, understand them in another. The truth of the matter is plainly this, that the ecclesiastical polity in England has never acquired a stable and consistent form, nor been reduced to clear and certain principles. It has rather been carried on and administered by ancient custom and precedent, than defined and fixed by any regular system of laws and institutions.

ment 2mong the Reformed.

The form of XXXII. If it was not an easy matter to detercal govern- mine in what hands the power of deciding affairs of a religious nature was to be lodged, it was no less difficult to fix the form of ecclesiastical government in which this power was to be administered. Many vehement disputes were kindled on this subject, which neither the lapse of time, nor the efforts of human wisdom, have been able to bring to an amicable issue. The Republic of Geneva, in consequence of the counsels of Calvin, judged it proper that the particular affairs of each church should be directed by a body of elders, or presbyters, all invested with an equal degree of power and authority; that matters of a more public and important nature were to be submitted

<sup>[</sup>y] Jo. Cosinus, De Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ Religione et. Disciplina, in the learned Thomas Smith's Vitæ Eruditiss. Virorum, published at London in 4to, in the year 1707.—See also Lav. Wilkins, De Veteri et Moderna Synodi Anglic. Constitutione, tom. i. Concil. Magn. Britann. p. vii .- Neal's History of the Puritans, vol. i. p. 2, 3, 15, 132.

mitted to the judgment of an assembly, or synod, CENT. Composed of elders chosen as deputies by the SVI. Churches of a whole province or district; and PART II. that all affairs of such extensive influence and high moment, as concerned the welfare of the sacred community in general, should be examined and decided, as in times of old, by a general assembly of the whole church. This form of ecclesiastical government the church of Geneva adopted for itself [2], and left no intreaties or methods of persuasion unemployed, that might recommend it to the other reformed churches with which they lived in fraternal communion. But it was obstitived in fraternal communion. But it was obstitived in fraternal communion.

[2] The account Dr Mosheim gives here and above (sect. XII. of this chapter) of the form of Ecclesiastical Government established by Calvin at Geneva, is far from being accurate. There are but two ecclesiastical bodies in that Republic, viz. the venerable company of the pastors and professors, and the consistory; for a just description of which, see the judicious Mr Keate's 'Short Account of the Ancient History, present Government, and Laws of the Republic of Geneva,' printed for Dodsley, in the year 1761, p. 110, 112, 121, 124.—I would only remark, that what this sensible author observes, with respect to the Consistory, p. 124, of his interesting performance, belongs principally, if not wholly, to the Venerable Company.—Dr Mosheim seems to have been led into this mistake, by imagining that the ecclesiastical form of Government established in Scotland, where indeed all church affairs are managed by consistorial, provincial, and national assemblies, or, in other words, by presbyteries, synods, and general synods, was a direct transcript of the hierarchy of Geneva. It is also probable, that he may have been deceived by reading in Neal's History of the Puritans, that the Scottish reformers approved of the discipline of the reformed churches of Geneva and Switzerland, and followed their plan of ecclesiastical government. But he ought to have observed, that this approbation and imitation related only to the democratical form of the church of Geneva, and the parity of its ministers. Be that as it may, the plan of government, which our historian here supposes to have place at Geneva, is in reality that which is observed in Scotland, and of which no more than the first and fundamental principles were taken from the discipline of Calvin. The small territory of Geneva would not ·admit of such a form of ecclesiastical polity as Dr Musheim here describes.

CENT nately rejected by the English clergy, who re-SECT. III. garded as sacred and immutable that ancient form PART II. of spiritual government, according to which a certain district or diocese is committed to the care and inspection of one ruler or bishop, to whom the presbyters of each church are subject, as also the deacons are to the presbyters; while those affairs that concerned the general interests of the church are treated in an assembly of bishops, and of such ecclesiastics as are next to them in rank and dignity. This form of episcopal polity was, with some small exceptions, adopted by the Bohemian and Moravian brethren [a], who were become one of the Reformed churches; but it was highly displeasing to those among the protestants, who had embraced the sentiments and discipline of Calvin. The dissensions, occasioned by these different schemes of ecclesiastical polity were every way adapted to produce a violent schism in the church; and that so much the more, as each of the contending parties pretended toderive their respective plan from the injunctions of Christ and the practice of his disciples. And in effect, it divided the English nation into two parties, who, during a long time, treated each other with great animosity and bitterness, and whose feuds, on many occasions, proved detrimental to the civil interests and prosperity of the nation. This schism, however, which did such mischief in England, was by the prudence and piety of a few great and excellent divines, confined to that country, and prevented from either becoming universal, or interrupting the fraternal union that prevailed between the church of England and the Reformed churches abroad. The worthy men, that thus set bounds to the inflúence

<sup>[</sup>a] See Epist. de Ordinat. et Successione Episcopal. in unitate Eratrum Bohem. conservata, in Christ. Matth. Pfassi Institution. Juris Eccles. p. 410.

ence of these unhappy divisions, found great op-c ENT. position made, by the suggestions of bigotry, to XVI. their charitable purpose. To maintain, however, PART II. the bonds of union between the episcopal church of England and the presbyterian churches in foreign countries, they laid down the following maxim, which, though it be not universally adopted, tends nevertheless to the preservation of external concord among the Reformed, viz. " That Jesus Christ has left upon record no ex-" press injunctions with respect to the external " form of government, that is to be observed in " his church; and consequently, that every nation hath a right to establish such a Form, as " seemeth conducive to the interests, and suitable " to the peculiar state, circumstances, and exi-" gences of the community, provided that such " an establishment be in no respect prejudicial " to truth, or favourable to the revival of super-" stition [b]."

AXXIII. It was the opinion of Calvin, not The state of only that flagitious and profligate members were church disto be cut off from the sacred society, and excluded from the communion of the church, but also that men of dissolute and licentious lives were punishable by the laws of the state, and the arm of the civil magistrate. In this he differed entirely from Zuingle, who, supposing that all authority of every kind, was lodged in the hands of the magistrate alone, would not allow to the ministers of the church the power of excluding flagitious offenders from its communion, or withholding from them the participation of its sacraments.

[b] See Spanhemii Opera, tom. ii. lib. viii. ix. p: 1055. This was the general opinion of the British divines that lived in the earliest period of the Reformation, and was first abandoned by archbishop Whitgitt. See Neal's History of the Puritans, tom. iii. p. 140.

CENT. ments [c.] But the credit and influence of Cal-XVI. vin were so great at Geneva, that he accomplished PART 11. his purpose, even in the face of a formidable opposition from various quarters. He established the severest rules of discipline to correct the licen-

position from various quarters. He established the severest rules of discipline to correct the licentious manners of the times, by which he exposed himself to innumerable perils from the malignity and resentment of the dissolute, and to perpetual contests with the patrons of voluptuousness and immorality. He executed, moreover, these rules of discipline with the utmost rigour, had them strengthened and supported by the authority of the state, excluded obstinate offenders from the communion of the church, by the judicial sentence of the Consistory, and even went so far as to procure their banishment from the city; not to mention other kinds of punishment, of no mild nature, which, at his desire, were inflicted upon men of loose principles and irregular lives [d].

[c] See a remarkable letter of Rud. Gualtieri, in Fueslin's Centuria I. Epistolarum à Reformatoribus Helveticis scripterum, p. 478, where he expresses himself thus: "Excommunicationem neque Zuinglius... neque Bullingerus umquam probarunt, et... obstiterunt iis qui eam aliquando voluerunt introducere... Basileæ quidem Oecolampadius, multum dissuadente Zuinglio, instituerat... sed adeo non durabilis fuit illa constitutio, ut Oecolampadius illam abrogarit," &c. See also p. 90.

[d] Of all the undertakings of Calvin, there was none that involved him in so much trouble, or exposed him to such imminent danger, as the plan he had formed, with such resolution and fortitude, of purging the church, by the exclusion of obstinate and scandalous offenders, and inflicting severe punishments on all such as violated the laws, enacted by the church, or by the Consistory, which was its representative. See "The Life of Calvin," composed by Beza, and prefixed to his Letters .- Spon's Histoire de Geneve, and particularly the notes, tom. ii. p. 45, 65.—Calvin's Letters, and more especially those addressed to Jaques de Bourgogne, published at Amsterdam, in 8vo, in the year 1744, p. 126, 127, 132, 153, 157. The party at Geneva, which Calvin called the sect of Libertines (because they defended the licentious customs of ancient times, the erection of stews, and such like matters, not only by their discourse and their actions, but even by force of arms),

The

The clergy in Switzerland were highly pleased CENT. with the form of church-government that had Sect. III. been established at Geneva, and ardently desirous PART II. of a greater degree of power to restrain the insolence of obstinate sinners, and a larger share of authority in the church, than they were intrusted with by the ecclesiastical constitution of Zuingle. They devoutly wished that the discipline of Calvin might be followed in their Cantons, and even made some attempts for that purpose. But their desires and their endeavours were equally vain; for the Cantons of Bern, Zurich, and Basil, distinguished themselves among the others in opposing this change, and would by no means permit the bounds, that Zuingle had set to the jurisdiction of the church, to be removed, nor its power and authority to be augmented, in any respect [e].

XXXIV. All the various branches of learning, The state of whether sacred or profane, flourished among two learning a-Reformed during this century, as appears evilously by the great number of excellent productions which have been transmitted to our times. Zuingle, indeed, seemed disposed to exclude philosophy from the pale of the church [f]; but in this inconsiderate purpose he had few followers, and the succeeding doctors of the Helvetic church E e 4 were

was both numerous and powerful. But the courage and resolution of this great reformer gained the ascendant, and triumphed over the opposition of his enemies.

[e] See the account of the tumults and commotions of Lausanne, in the Museum Helveticum, tom. ii. p. 119.—The disputes that were carried on upon this occasion, in the Palatinate, which adopted the ecclesiastical discipline of Geneva, are recorded by Altingius, in his Hist. Eccles. Palat. and by Struvius, in his Hist. Eccles. Palat. German. p. 212.

[f] Zuingle, in the dedication of his book, De vera et falsa Religione, to Francis I. king of France, expresses himself in the following terms: "Philosophiæ interdictum est à Christi Scholis: at isti (Sorbonistæ) fecerunt eam cælestis verbi magistram.

CENT. were soon persuaded of the necessity of philoso-STOTALIL phical knowledge, more especially in controver-PART it sies and researches of a theological kind. Hence it was, that, in the year 1588, an academy was founded at Geneva by Calvin, whose first care was to place in this new seminary a professor of philosophy for the instruction of youth in the principles of reasoning. It is true, indeed, that this professor had a very limited province assigned him, being obliged to confine his instructions to a mere interpretation of the precepts of Aristotle, who at this time was the oracle of all the public schools [g], and whose philosophical principles and method were exclusively adopted by all the other Reformed academies; though it is certain, that the philosophy of Ramus was, for some time, preferred by many of the doctors of Basil to that of the Stagirite [b].

The interpreters and commentators of scripture. XXXV. The Reformed church, from its very infancy, produced a great number of expositors of scripture, whose learned and excellent commentaries deserve a memorable place [i] in the history of theological science. The exposition that Zuingle has given of the greatest part of the books of the New Testament is far from being destitute

[5] Beza, in his Epistolæ Theologicæ (ep. xxxvi. p. 156), speaks thus: "Certam nobis ac constitutum est, et in ipsis tradendis iogicis et in ceteris explicandis disciplinis ab Aristotelis sententia ne tantillum quidem deflectere."

[b] See Casp. Brandtii Vita Jacobi Arminii, p. 12, 13, 22. [i] Dr Niosheim pays a tribute to these great men of the Reformed church, that seems to be extorted by justice, with a kind of effort, from the spirit of party. He says, that Zuingle's labours are not contemptible; that Calvin attempted an illustration of the sacred writings; that the New Testament of Beza has not, even at this day, entirely lost the reputation it formerly enjoyed. This is faint praise; and therefore the translator has, without departing from the tenor of the author's phraseology, animated a little the coldness of his panegyric.

destitute of merit [k]. He was succeeded by CENT.

Bullinger, Oecolampadius, and Musculus, and SECT. III.

also by others, who, though inferior to these PART II. great men in erudition and genius, deserve nevertheless a certain degree of approbation and esteem. But the two divines who shone with a superior and unrivalled lustre in this learned list of sacred expositors, were John Calvin, and Theodore Beza. The former composed an excellent commentary on almost all the books of Holy Writ; and the latter published a Latin Version of the New Testament, enriched with theological and critical observations, which has passed through many editions, and enjoys, at this day, a considerable part of the reputation and applause with which it was crowned at its first appearance. It must be acknowledged, to the honour of the greatest part of these commentators, that, wisely neglecting those allegorical 'significations and mystical meanings that the irregular fancies of former expositors had attributed to the terms of Holy Writ, they employed their whole diligence and industry in investigating the literal sense, the full energy of the words of scripture, in order to find out the true intention of the sacred writer. It must, however, be observed, on the other hand, that some of these interpreters, and more especially Calvin, have been sharply censured for applying to the temporal state and circumstances of the Jews, several prophecies that point to the Messiah, and to the Christian dispensation in the most evident and palpable manner, and thus removing some of the

ment that Zuingle employed his very learned and excellent labours. He expounded the book of Genesis, together with the twenty-four first chapters of Exodus, and gave new versions of the Book of Psalms, of the Prophecies of Isaiah and Jeremiah.

CENT. the most striking arguments in favour of the divi-

SECT. III. nity of the gospel [1].

church.

PART IL XXXVI. The state of theology, and the revo-The theolo-lutions it underwent among the Helvetic and gical doc- the other Reformed churches, were pretty much trine of the the same with what it met with among the Lu-Zuingle was one of the first Reformed doctors who reduced that sacred science into a certain sort of order, in his book Concerning true and false Religion, which contained a brief exposition of the principal doctrines of Christianity. This production was followed by one much more comprehensive in its contents, and perfect in its kind, composed by Calvin, and entitled, Institutes of the Christian Religion, which held in the Reformed churches the same rank, authority, and credit, that the Loci Communes of Melancthon obtained among us [m]. The example of Calvin animated the doctors of his Communion, and produced a great number of writers of Common Place Divinity, some more, others less voluminous, among which Musculus, Peter Martyr, and Piscator particularly excelled. The most ancient of these writers are, generally speaking, the best, on account of their simplicity and clearness, being untainted with that affectation of subtilty, and that scholastic spirit, that have eclipsed the merit of many a good genius. Calvin was a model in this respect, more especially in his Institutes; a work remarkable for the finest elegance of style, and the greatest ease and perspicuity of expression, together with the most perfect simplicity of method, and clearness of argument. But this simplicity was soon effaced by the intricate science of the

<sup>[1]</sup> See Ægidii Hunnii Calvinus Judaizans, published at Wittemberg, in 8vo, in the year 1595, which was refuted by David Pareus, in a book published the same year, under the title of Calvinus Ortbodoxus.

<sup>[</sup>m] The reader must not forget that the learned author of this History is a Lutheran.

the schools. The philosophy of Aristotle, CENT. Which was taught in almost all the seminaries of SECT. III. learning, and suffered much from falling into bad PART. II. hands, insinuated itself into the regions of theology, and rendered them barren, thorny, intricate, and gloomy, by the enormous multitude of barbarous terms, captious questions, minute distinctions, and useless subtilties, that followed in its train [n].

XXXVII. The

[n] It must however be acknowledged, that the scholastic method of teaching theology seems to have first infected our (the Lutheran) church, though the contagion spread itself, soon after, among the reformed doctors. It was certainly very recent in Holland at the time of the famous synod of Dort. In this assembly Maccovius, professor at Francker, a man deeply versed in all the mysteries of the scholastic philosophy, was accused of heresy by his colleague Sibrand Lubbert. When the matter was examined, the synod gave it as their opinion, that Maccovius was unjustly accused of heresy; but that, in his divinity lectures, he had not followed that simplicity of method, and clearness of expression, that are commendable in a public teacher of Christianity; and that he rather followed the subtile manner of the scholastic doctors, than the plain and unaffected phraseology of the inspired writers. The decision of the synod is expressed by Walter Balcanqual (in the acts of that ecclesiastical assembly that are subjoined to his letters to Sir Dudley Carleton) in the following words: " Maccovium ..., nullius hæreseos reum teneri ... peccasse eum, quod quibusdam ambiguis et obscuris scholasticis phrasibus usus sit: Quod scholasticum docendi modum conetur in Belgicis academiis introducere . . . Monendum esse eum, ut cum spiritu sancto loquatur, non cum Bellarmino aut Suarezio ‡." These admonitions produced but little effect on Maccovius, as appears by his theological writings, which are richly seasoned with scholastic wit and intricate speculations. He therefore appears to have been the first who introduced the subtilties of philosophy into the theological system of the Reformed churches in Holland. He was not, however, alone in this attempt, but was seconded by the acute Mr William Ames, minister of the English church at the Hague, and several others of the same scholastic turn. method of teaching theology must have been in use among almost all the reformed doctors before the synod of Dort, if we give credit to Episcopius, who, in the last discourse he addressed

‡ See the Acta Synodi Dord. in Hale's Golden Remains, p. 161.—and Philippi Limborchii Epistolar. Ecclesiasticar. Collect. p. 574. morality.

XXXVII. The Reformed doctors of this cen-CENT. SECT. III. tury generally concluded their treatises of didactic PART II, theology with a delineation of the moral duties that are incumbent upon Christians, and the rules practical di- of practice that are prescribed in the Gospel. This The state of method was observed by Calvin, and was folvinity or lowed, out of respect for his example, by almost all the divines of his communion, who looked upon him as their model and their guide. This eminent man, towards the conclusion of his Institutes, speaks of the power of the magistrate, and the ends of civil government; and in the last chapter gives the portraiture of the life and manners of a true Christian, but in a much more concise manner than the copiousness, dignity, and importance of the subject seemed to require. The progress of morality among the Reformed, was obstructed by the very same means that retarded its improvement among the Lutherans. It was neglected amidst the tumult of controversy; and while every pen was drawn to maintain certain systems of doctrine, few were employed in cultivating or promoting that noblest of all sciences, which has virtue, life, and manners for its objects. This

> addressed to his disciples at Leyden, tells them that he had carefully avoided this scholastic divinity; and that this was the principal cause that had drawn on him the vehement hatred and opposition of all the other professors and teachers of theology. His words are as follow: "Videbam veritatem multarum et maximarum rerum in ipsa scriptura sacra, elaboratis humana industria phrasibus, ingeniosis vocularum fictionibus, locorum communium, artificiosis texturis, exquisitis terminorum ac formularum inventionibus adeo involetum, perplexam et intricatam redditam esse, ut Oedipo sæpe opus esset ad Sphingem illam theologicam enodandam. Ita est, ut hinc primæ lacrymæ.—Reducendam itaque terminorum apostolicorum et cuivis obviorum simplicitatem semper sequendam putavi, et sequestrandas, quas academise et scholæ tanquam proprias sibi vendicant, logicas, philosophicasque speculationes et dictiones." See Philippi Limborchii Vita Episcopii, p. 123, 124.

This master-science, which Calvin and his CENT. associates had left in a rude and imperfect state. Stot. III. was first reduced into some kind of form, and ex-PART II. plained with a certain degree of accuracy and precision, by William Perkins [0], an English divine, as the Reformed doctors universally allow. He was seconded in this laudable undertaking by Telingius, a native of Holland, whose writings were composed in the Dutch language. It was by a worthy and pious spirit of emulation, excited by the example of these two doctors, that William Anies, a native of Scotland and professor of divinity at Francker [p], was engaged to compose a complete Body of Christian Morality [q]. These writers

wickshire, in the first year of Queen Elizabeth and educated in Christ's College, Cambridge, of which he was Fellow. He was one of the most famous practical writers and preachers of his age. His puritanical and non-conforming principles exposed him to the cognizance of the High Commission Court; but his peaceable behaviour, and eminent reputation in the learned world, procured him an exemption from the persecutions that fell upon his brethren. His works, which were printed in three volumes folio, afford abundant proofs of his piety and industry, especially when it is considered that he died in the 44th year of his age.

[p] Dr William Ames, educated at Cambridge, under Mr Perkins, fled from the persecution of Archbishop Bancroft, and was invited by the States of Friesland to the divinity chair in the University of Francker, which he filled with great reputation during the space of twelve years, after which he removed to Rotterdam, at the invitation of an English church there, and became their pastor. He was at the synod of Dort, and informed King James's ambassador at the Hague, from time to time, of the debates of that assembly. Besides his controversial writings against the Arminians, he published the following: Medulla Theologia (the work here referred to by Dr Mosheim); - Manuductio Logica; - Cases of Conscience; - Analysis on the Book of Psalms; - Notes on the First and Second Epistles of St Peter, &c. These productions are not void of merit, considering the times in which they were written.

[9] In the Dedication and Presace of his samous book De Conscientia et ejus jure, Dr Ames observes (Prasat. p.3.)

that

**Spiritual** 

C E N T writers were succeeded by others, who still threw SECT. III. farther light on this important science.

PART II. XXXVIII. The Reformed church was less The con- disturbed, during this century, by sects, divisions, tests of Cal-and theological disputes, than the Lutheran, vin with the which was often a prey to the most unhappy dis-Libertines. sensions. This circumstance is looked upon by the former as a matter of triumph, though it may be very easily accounted for by all such as are acquainted with the History of the Reformed Church [r]. We have, however, in the writings of Calvin, an account, and also a refutation, of a most pernicious sect that sprung up in that church, and produced troubles of a more deplorable kind than any that happened in our community [s]. This odious sect, which assumed the denominations of Libertines and Spiritual Brethren and Sisters, arose in Flanders, was headed by Pockesius, Ruffus, and Quintin, got a certain footing in France through the favour and protection of Margaret, queen of Navarre, and sister to Francis I. and found patrons in several of the Reformed

> that an excessive zeal for doctrine had produced an unhappy neglect of morality, " Quod heec pars prophetise (i. e. morality) hactenus minus fuerit exculta, hoc inde fuit, quod primipilares nostri perpetuo in acie adversus hostes pugnare, fidem propugnare, et aream ecclesiæ purgare, necessitate quadam cogebantur, ita ut agros et vineas plantare et rigare non potuerint ex voto, sicut bello fervente usu venire solet." The address to the students of Francker, which is subjoined to this book, under the title of Parænesis ad Studiosos, &c. deserves to be perused, as it confirms farther what has been already observed with respect to the neglect of the science of morality. "Theologi (says he) præclare se instructos putant ad omnes officii sui partes, si dogmata tantum intelligant.—Neque tamen omnia dogmata scrutantur, sed illa sola, quæ præcipue solent agitari et in controversiam vocari."

> E' [r] Dr Mosheim ought to have given us a hint of his manner of accounting for this, to avoid the suspicion of having been somewhat at a loss for a favourable solution.

> KP [s] Why all these comparisons? Our author seems, on some occasions, to tinge his historical relation with the spirit of party.

Reformed churches [t]. Their doctrine, as far CENT. as it can be known by the writings of Calvin and SECT. IIL. its other antagonists, for these fanatics published PART IL no account of their tenets that is come to my knowledge), amounted to the following propositions: "That the Deity was the sole operating " cause in the mind of man, and the immediate author of all human actions; that, consequently, the distinctions of good and evil, that had been " established with respect to these actions, were " false and groundless, and that men could not, " properly speaking, commit sin; that religion consisted in the union of the spirit, or rational " soul, with the Supreme Being; that all those who had attained this happy union, by sublime " contemplation and elevation of mind, were " then allowed to indulge, without exception or " restraint, their appetites and passions; that all 66 their actions and pursuits were then perfectly " innocent; and that, after the death of the body, " they were to be united to the Deity." These extravagant tenets resemble, in such a striking manner, the opinions of the Beghards, or Brethren of the Free Spirit, that it appears to me, beyond all doubt, that the Libertines, or Spirituals, now under consideration, were no more than a remnant of that ancient sect. The place of their origin confirms this hypothesis; since it is well known, that, in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, Flanders almost swarmed with licentious fanatics of this kind.

XXXIX. We must not confound, as is fre-And with quently done, with these fanatics, another kind the Liber-of Libertines, whom Calvin had to combat, and tines of Gewhole gave him much trouble and perplexity during the whole course of his life and ministry, I mean the

<sup>[1]</sup> See Calvini Instructio adversus fanaticum et furiosam sectam Libertinorum, qui se spirituales vocant, in Tractatibus ejus Theologicis.

CENT. the Libertines of Geneva. These were rather a XVI. cabal of rakes than a sect of fanatics. For they PART II made no pretences to any religious system, but pleaded only for the liberty of leading voluptuous and immoral lives. This cabal was composed of a certain number of licentious citizens, who could not bear the severe discipline of Calvin, who punished with rigour not only dissolute manners, but also whatever carried the aspect of irreligion and impiety. This irregular troop stood forth in defence of the licentiousness and dissipation that had reigned in their city before the Reformation, pleaded for the continuance of those brothels, banquetings and other entertainments of a sensual kind, which the regulations of Calvin were designed to abolish, and employed all the bitterness of reproach and invective, all the resources of fraud and violence, all the powers of faction, to accomplish their purpose [u]. In this turbulent cabal there were several persons, who were not only notorious for their dissolute and scandalous manner of living, but also for their atheistical impiety and contempt of all religion. Of this odious class was Gruet, who attacked Calvin with the utmost animosity and fury, calling him bishop Asculanensis, the new pope, and branding him with other contumelious denominations of a like nature. This Gruet denied the divinity of the Christian religion, the immortality of the soul, the difference between moral good and evil, and rejected, with disdain, the doctrines that are held the most sacred among Christians; for which impieties he was at last brought before the civil tribunals, in the year 1550, and was condemned to death [w].

XL. The

<sup>[</sup>s] Spon's Histoire de Geneve, tom. ii. p. 44. in the Notes of the editor, in the edition in 12mo, published at Geneva is 1730.
[w] Id. tom. ii. p. 47, in the Notes.

- XL. The opposition that was made to Calvin CENT. did not end here. He had contests of another SECT. III. kind to sustain against those who could not relish PART II. his theological system, and, more especially, his Calvin's melancholy and discouraging doctrine in relation disputes to eternal and absolute Decrees. These adversaries with Casi felt, by a disagreeable experience, the warmth and violence of his haughty temper, and that impatience of contradiction that arose from an overjealous concern for his honour, or rather for his unrivalled supremacy. He would not suffer them to remain at Geneva; nay, in the heat of the controversy, being carried away by the impetuosity of his passions, he accused them of crimes, from which they have been fully absolved by the impartial judgment of unprejudiced posterity [x]. Among these victims of Calvin's unlimited power and excessive zeal, we may reckon Sebastian Castalio, master of the public school at Geneva. who, though not exempt from failings [v], was nevertheless a man of probity, and was also remarkable for the extent of his learning, and the elegance of his taste. As this learned man could not approve of all the measures that were followed nor indeed of all the opinions that were entertained by Calvin and his colleagues, and particularly that of absolute and unconditional predestination, he was deposed from his office in the Vol. IV. year

which the merit and demerit of that learned man seem to be impartially and accurately examined.

<sup>[</sup>x] At this day; we may venture to speak thus freely of the rash decisions of Calvin, since even the doctors of Geneva, as well as those of the other Reformed churches, ingeniuously acknowledge that the eminent talents and excellent qualities of that great man were accompanied with great defects, for which, however, they plead indulgence, in consideration of his services and virtues. See the Notes to Spon's Histoire de Geneve, tom. ii. p. 110, as also the Preface to Calvin's Letters to Jaques de Bourgogne, p. 19.

CENT. year 1544, and banished the city. The magi-XVI.
SECT. III. strate of Basil received, nevertheless, this inge-PART II nious exile, and gave him the Greek professorship in their university [2].

with Bel-

XLI. A like fate happened to Jerom Bolsec, a French monk of the Carmelite order, who, though much inferior to Castalio in genius and learning, was nevertheless judged worthy of esteem, on account of the motive that brought him to Geneva; for it was a conviction of the excellence of the protestant religion that engaged him to abandon the monastic retreats of superstition, and to repair to this city, where he followed the profession of physic. His imprudence, how-ever, was great, and was the principal cause of the misfortunes that befel him. It led him, in the year 1551, to lift up his voice in the full congregation, after the conclusion of divine worship, and to declaim, in the most indecent manner, against the doctrine of absolute Decrees; for which he was cast into prison, and, soon after, sent into banishment. He then returned to the place of his nativity, and to the communion of Rome, and published the most bitter and slanderous libels, in which the reputation, conduct, and morals of Calvin and Beza were cruelly attacked [a]. From this treatment of Bolsec arose the misunderstanding between Calvin and Jaques de Bourgogne, a man illustrious by his descent from the duke of Burgundy, who was Calvin's great patron and intimate friend, and who had settled at Geneva with no other view than to enjoy the pleasure

[2] See Uytenbogard's Ecclesiastical History, written in Dutch, part II. p. 70-73. where that author endeavours to defend the inflecence of Castalio. See also Colomesii Italia Orientalis, p. 99—Bayle's Dict. tom. i. p. 792.

[u] See Bayle's Diet. at the article Bolsec.—Spon's Hist. de Geneve, tom. ii. p. 55. in the Notes.—Biblioth. Raisonnée,

tom. xxxii. p. 446, tom. xxxiv. p. 409.

pleasure of conversing with him. Jaques de Bour-central gogne had employed Bolsec as his physician, and SECT. III. was so well satisfied with his services, that he en-PART. II. deavoured to support him, and to prevent his being ruined by the enmity and authority of Calvin. This incensed the latter to such a degree, that he turned the force of his resentment against this illustrious nobleman, who, to avoid his vengeance, removed from Geneva, and passed the remainder of his days in a rural retreat [b].

XLII. Bernardin Ochinus, a native of Siena, and with and, before his conversion, general of the order Ochima. of Capuchins, was, in the year 1543, banished from Switzerland, in consequence of a sentence passed upon him by the Helvetic church. This' proselyte, who was a man of a fertile imagination, and a lively and subtile turn of mind, had been invited to Zurich as pastor of the Italian church established in that city. But the freedom, or rather the licentiousness, of his sentiments, exposed him justly to the displeasure of those who had been his patrons and protectors. For, among many other opinions very different from those that were commonly received, he maintained that the law, which confined a husband to one wife, was susceptible of exceptions in certain cases. In his writings also he propagated several notions that were repugnant to the theological system of the Helvetic doctors, and pushed his enquiries into many subjects of importance, with a boldness and freedom that were by no means suitable to the genius and spirit of the age in which he lived. Some have, however, undertaken his defence, and have alleged in his behalf, that the errors he maintained at the time of his banishment (when, F f 2 worn

<sup>[</sup>b] See Lettres de Calvin à Jaques de Bourgogne, Preface, p. 8.—La Bibliotheque Raisonnée, tom. xxxiv. p. 444. tom. xxxiv. p. 406.

CENT. worn out with age, and oppressed with poverty, he XVI. was rather an object of compassion, than of resent-PART II ment), were not of such a heinous nature as to jus-tify so severe a punishment. H wever that may Have been, this unfortunate exile retired into Poland, where he embraced the communion of the Anti-trinitarians and Anabaptists [c], and ended his days in the year 1564 [d].

The contro Acted petween the England

and the

Puritans.

XLIII. It is remarkable enough, that those very doctors, who animadverted with such severity Church of upon all those who dared to dissent from any part of their theological system, thought proper, nevertheless, to behave with the greatest circumspection, and the most pacific spirit of mildness, in the long controversy that was carried on with such animosity between the Puritans, and the abettors of episcopacy in England. For if, on the one

> [c] Boverii Annales Capucinorum.—Together with a book, entitled, 'La guerre Seraphique, ou Histoire des perils qua couru la barbe des Capuchins,' livr. ii. p. 147. livr. iii. p. 190, 230.—Observationes Halenses Latinæ, tom. iv. Observ. xx. p. 406, tom. v. Observ. i. p. 3.—Bayle's Diction. st the article Ochin.—Christ. Sandii Biblioth. Anti-Trinitar. p. 4. Niceson, Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire des bemmes illustres, tom. xix. p. 186.

[d] Ochinus did not leave the accusations of his adversaries without a reply; he published, in Italian, Five Books of Apology for his character and conduct, which were printed, together with a Latin translation of them, by Seb. Castalio, without the date of the year. The Geneva edition of this apology bears date 1554, and is in 840. There is & German edition in 4to, published (according to Vogtius, Casal. Lib. rar. p. 430) in the year 1556. That copy in the Jena library bears date 1559. See Mylius's Memor. Acad. Jenens. C. 6. p. 432. Beza, in his letter to Dudithius, insults the memory of Ochinus, and pretends to justify the severity with which he was treated, in such a taunting and uncharitable manner as does him little credit. See his Epist. Theolor. Generæ, 1575, in 12mo, Epist. i. p. 10, and Ep. 81. What the writers of the Romish church have laid to the charge of Ochinus, may be seen in the life of Cardinal Commendoci, written by Gratiani bishop of Amelia (and published in a French translation by the eloquent Flechier bishof of Nismes), B. 2, C. 9, p. 138-149. N.

one hand, they could not but stand well affected C B N T. to the Puritans, who were stedfast defenders of XVI. the discipline and sentiments of the Helvetic PART II. church; so, on the other, they were connected with the episcopal doctors by the bonds of Christian communion and fraternal love. In this critical situation, their whole thoughts were turned towards reconciliation and peace; and they exhorted their brethren, the Puritans, to put on a spirit of meekness and forbearance towards the episcopal church, and not to break the bonds of charity and communion with its rulers or its members. Such was the gentle spirit of the doctors in Switzerland towards the church of England, notwithstanding the severe treatment the greatest part of the Reformed had received from that church, which constantly insisted on the divine origin of its government and discipline, and scarcely allowed the other reformed communicies the privileges, or even the denomination, of a true church. This moderation of the Helvetic doctors was the dictate of prudence. They did not think it expedient to contend with a generous and flourishing people, nor to incur the displeasure of a mighty queen, whose authority seemed to extend not only to her own dominions, but even to the United Provinces, which were placed in her neighbourhood, and, in some measure, under her protection. Nor did the apprehensions of a general schism in the Reformed church contribute a little to render them meek, moderate, and pacific. It is one thing to punish and excommunicate a handful of weak and unsupported individuals, who attempt to disturb the tranquillity of the state by the introduction of opinions, which, though neither highly absurd, nor of dangerous consequence, have yet the demerit of novelty; and another to irritate, or promote divisions in a flourishing church, which, though weakened Ff3 more

CENT. more or less by intestine feuds, is yet both power-SECT. III. ful and respectable in a high degree. Besides, the PART IL dispute between the church of England and the other Reformed churches did not, as yet, turn upon points of doctrine, but only on the rites of external worship and the form of ecclesiastical government. It is, however, to be observed, that in process of time, nay soon after the period now under consideration, certain religious doctrines were introduced into the debate between the two churches, that contributed much to widen the breach, and to cast the prospect of reconciliation at a distance  $\lceil d \rceil$ .

Many pernent genius ing among the Keformed.

XLIV. That the Reformed church abounded, sons of emi-during this century, with great and eminent men, and learn- justly celebrated for their illustrious talents and universal learning, is too well known to stand in need of any proof. Besides Calvin, Zuingle, and Beza, who exhibited to the Republic of Letters very striking instances of genius and eru-. dition, we may place in the list of those who have gained an immortal name by their writings. Oecolampadius, Bullinger, Farel, Viret, Martyr, Bibliander, Musculus, Pellican, Lavater, Hospinian, Ursinus, Cranmer bishop of Canterbury, Szegedinus, and many others

> [d] All the protestant divines of the Resormed church whether Puritans or others, seemed, indeed, hitherto of one mind about the doctrines of faith. But, towards the latter end of queen Elizabeth's reign, there arose a party, which were first for softening, and then for overthrowing the received opinions concerning predestination, perseverance, free-will, effectual grace, and the extent of Christ's redemption. These are the dectrines to which Dr Mosheim alludes in this paisage. The clergy of the episcopal church began to lean towards the notions concerning these intricate points, which Arminius propagated some time after this; while, on the other hand, the Puritans adhered rigorously to the system of Several episcopal doctors remained attached to the same system, and all these abettors of Calvinism, whether ex piscopal or presbyterian, were called Doctrinal Puritans.

others, whose names and merits are recorded by CENT.
the writers of philological history, and particularly SECT. III.
by Melchior Adam, Antony Wood, and Daniel PART II.
Neal, the learned and industrious author of the
History of the Puritans.

## CHAP. III.

The History of the Anabaptists or Mennonites.

HE true origin of that sect which ac-The origin quired the denomination of the Ana-of the Ana-of the Ana-baptists [e] by their administering anew the rite of scure, baptism

[e] The modern Mennonites reject the denomination of Anabaptists, and also disavow the custom of repeating the ceremony of baptism, from whence this denomination is derived. They acknowledge that the ancient Anabaptists practised the repetition of baptism to those who joined them from other Christian churches; but they maintain, at the same time, that this custom is at present abolished by far the greatest part of their community. See Herm. Schyn, Historiæ Mennonicarum plenior Deductio, cap. ii. p. 32. But here, if I am not much mistaken, these good men forget that ingenious candour and simplicity, of which, on other occasions, they make such ostentation, and have recourse to artifice, in order to disguise the true cause and origin of the denomination in question. They pretend, for instance, that the Anabaptists, their ancestors, were so called from their baptising a second time all adult persons, who left other churches to enter into their communion. But it is certain, that the denomination in question was given them, not only on this account, but also, and indeed principally, from the following consideration; that they did not look upon those who had been baptised in a state of infancy, or at a tender age, as rendered, by the administration of this sacrament, true members of the Christian church; and therefore insisted upon their being re-baptised, in order to their being received into the communion of the Anabaptists. It is likewise certain, that all the churches of that communion, however they may vary in other respects, and differ from each other in their tenets and practices, agree nevertheless in this opinion, and, as yet, persewere obstinately in it. In a more especial manner are the. ancient Flemish Anabaptists entitled to this denomination.

XVI.

SECT. III. nion, and derived that of Mennonites, from the PART II.

For they not only re-baptise the children that have been already baptised in other churches, but even observe the same method with respect to persons that are come to the years of reason and discretion. Nay, what is still more remarkable, the different sects of Anabaptists deal in the same manner one with another; each seet re-baptises the persons that enter into its communion, although they have already received that sacrament in another sect of the same denomination; and the reason of this conduct is, that each sect considers its baptism alone as pure and valid. It is indeed to be observed, that there is another class of Anabaptists, called Waterlandians, who are more moderate in their principles, and wise; in all respects than those now mentioned, and who do not pretend to re-baptise adult persons, who have already been baptised in other Christian churches, or in other sects of their own denomination. This moderate class are, however, with propriety, termed Anabaptists, on account of their re-baptising such as had received the baptismal rite in a state of infancy or childhood. The patrons of this sect seem, indeed. very studious to conceal a practice which they cannot deny to take place among them; and their eagerness to conceal it, arises from an apprehension of reviving the hatred and severities which formerly pursued them. They are afraid, lest, by acknowledging the truth, the modern Mennonites should be considered as the descendants of those flagitious and fanatical Anabaptists of Munster, whose enormities rendered their very name odious to all true Christians. All this appears evident from the following passage in Schyn's Historia Mennonitarum plenior Deductio, tom. ii. p. 32, where that author pretends to prove that his brethren are unjustly stigmatized with the odious denomination of Anabaptists. His words are: "Anabaptismus ille plane obsolevit et a multis retro annis neminem cujuscunque sectes Christianse fidei, juxta mandatum Christi baptizatum, dum ad nostras Ecclesias transire cupit, re-baptizaverunt." i. e. That species of Anabaptism with which we are charged, exists no longer, nor has it happened during the space of many years past, that any person professing Christianity, of whatever church or sect he may have been, and who had been previously baptised according to the commandment of Christ, has been re-baptized upon his entering into our communion. This passage would, at first sight, induce an inattentive reader to imagine that there is no such thing among the modern Mennonites, as the custom of re-baptising those who enter into their community. But the words which we have marked in Italic (junta mondatum

famous man, to whom they owe the greatest part  $C \in N$  T. of their present felicity, is hid in the remote  $S \times C = III$ . depths of antiquity, and is, of consequence,  $P \times II$  extremely difficult to be ascertained [f]. This uncer-

datum Christi, i. e. according to the commandment of Christ), discovers sufficiently the artifice and fraud that lie hid in this apology; for the Anabaptists maintain that there is no commandment of Christ in favour of infant baptism. Moreover, we see the whole fallacy exposed, by what the author adds to the sentence already quoted: "Sed illum etiam adultorum baptismum ut sufficientem agnoscunt." Nevertheless, this author, as if he had perfectly proved his point, concludes, with an air of triumph, that the odious name of Anabaptists cannot be given, with any propriety, to the Mennonites at this day; " Quare (says he) verissimum est, illud odiosum nomen Anabaptistarum illis non convenire." In this, however, he is certainly mistaken; and the name in question is just as applicable to the modern Mennonites, as it was to the sect from which they descend, since the best and wisest of the Mennonites maintain, in conformity with the principles of the ancient Anabaptists, that the baptism of infants is destitute of validity, and consequently are very careful in rebaptizing their proselytes, notwithstanding their having been baptised in their tender years, in other Christian churches. Many circumstances persuade me that the declarations and representations of things given by the modern Mennonites, are not always worthy of credit. Unhappily instructed by the miseries and calamities in which their ancestors were involved, they are anxiously careful to conceal entirely those tenets and laws that are the distinguishing characteristics of their sect; while they embellish what they cannot totally conceal, and disguise with the greatest art such of their institutions as otherwise might appear of a pernicious tendency, and might expose them to censure.

[f] The writers for and against the Anabaptists are amply enumerated by Casper Sagittarius, in his Introductio ad Histor. Eccles. tom. i. p. 826, and Christ. M. Pfassius, in his Introduct. in Histor. Literar. Theologiae, part II. p. 349.—Add to these a modern writer, and a Mennonite preacher, Herman Schyn, who published at Amsterdam, in 8vo, in the year 1729, his Historia Mennonitar. and, in 1729, his Plenior Deductio Histor. Mennonit. These two books, though they do not deserve the title of a History of the Mennonites, are nevertheless useful, in order to come at a thorough knowledge of the affairs of this sect; for this author is much more intent upon defending his brethren against the accusations and reproaches with which they have been loaded, than careful in tracing out

CENT uncertainty will not appear surprising, when it is

SECT. III, considered, that this sect started up all of a PART IL sudden, in several countries, at the same point of time, under leaders of different talents and different intentions, and at the very period when the first contests of the Reformers with the Roman pontifs drew the attention of the world, and employed the pens of the learned, in such a manner, as to render all other objects and incidents almost matters of indifference. The modern Mennonites not only consider themselves as the descendants of the Waldenses, who were so grievously oppressed and persecuted by the despotic heads of the Roman church, but pretend, moreover, to be the purest offspring of these respectable sufferers, being equally averse to all principals of rebellion, on the one hand, and all suggestions of fanaticism on the other [g]. Their adversaries, on the contrary, represent them as the descendants of those turbulent and furious Anabaptists, who, in the sixteenth century, involved Germany, Holland, Switzerland, and more especially the province of Westphalia, in such scenes of blood, perplexity, and distress; and allege, that, terrified by the dreadful fate of their associates, and also influenced by the moderate councils and wise injunctions of Mennon, they! abandoned the ferocity of their primitive enthusiasm, and were gradually brought to a better mind. After having examined these two

> the origin, progress, and revolutions of their sect. And, indeed, after all, the Mennonites have not much reason to boast either of the extraordinary learning or dexterity of this their patron; nay, it is even to be imagined, that they may easily find a more able defender. For an accurate account of the Mennonite historians, and their confessions of faith, see Jo. Christ. Kuccheri Bibliotheca Theol. Symbolicae, p. 461.

> [g] See Herm. Schyn, Plenior Deductio Histor. Mennon. cap. 1. p. 2. as also a Dutch work, entitled, 4 Galenus Abraharazon, Verdediging der Christenem, die Doopsgezinde ge-

namd woorden," p. 29.

two different accounts of the origin of the Ana-CENT.

baptists with the utmost attention and impartiality, SECT. III.

I have found that neither of them are exactly con-PART IL formable to truth.

II. It may be observed, in the first place, that The meet the Mennonites are not entirely mistaken when probable they boast of their descent from the Waldenses, the origin Petrobrussians, and other ancient sects, who are of the Anausually considered as witnesses of the truth, in the baptists. times of universal darkness and superstition. fore the rise of Luther and Calvin, they lay concealed, in almost all the countries of Europe, particularly in Bohemia, Moravia, Switzerland, and Germany, many persons, who adhered tenaciously to the following doctrine, which the Waldenses, Wicklistites, and Hussites had maintained, some in a more disguised, and others in a more open and public manner, viz. "That the kingdom of Christ, or the visible church he had established upon earth, was an assembly of true and real saints, and ought therefore to be inaccessible to the wicked and unrighteous, and also exempt from all those institutions, which human prudence suggests, to oppose the progress of iniquity, or to correct and reform transgressors." This maxim is the true source of all the peculiarities that are to be found in the religious doctrine and discipline of the Mennonites; and it is most certain, that the greatest part of these peculiarities were approved of by many of those, who, before the dawn of the Reformation, entertained the notion already mentioned, relating to the visible church of Christ [b]. There

of Piedmont, ch. 22 -26, p. 211-28c. N.

<sup>[</sup>b] See for an account of the religious sentiments of the Waldenses, Limborch's excellent History of the Inquisition, translated into English by the learned Dr Samuel Chandler, book I. chap. viii.—It appears from undoubted testimonies, that the Wickliffites and Hussites did not differ extremely from the Waldenses, concerning the point undou consideration. See also Lydii Waldensia, and Alix's Ancient churches

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CENT. There were, however, different ways of thinking SECT III. among the different members of this sect, with re-PART II spect to the methods of attaining to such a perfect church-establishment as they had in view. Some, who were of a fanatical complexion on the one hand, and were persuaded on the other, that such a visible church as they had modelled out in fancy, could not be realised by the power of man, entertained the pleasing hope, that God, in his own good time, would erect to himself an holy church, exempt from every degree of blemish and impurity, and would set apart, for the execution of this grand design, a certain number of chosen instruments, divinely assisted and prepared for this work, by the extraordinary succours of his Holy Spirit. Others, of a more prudent and rational turn of mind, entertained different views of this matter. They neither expected stupendous miracles, nor extraordinary revelations; since they were persuaded, that it was possible, by human wisdom, industry, and vigilance, to purify the church from the contagion of the wicked, and to restore it to the simplicity of its original constitution, provided that the manners and spirit of the primitive Christians could but recover their lost dignity and lustre.

III. The drooping spirits of these people, who had been dispersed through many countries, and persecuted every where with the greatest severity, were revived when they were informed that Luther, seconded by several persons of eminent piety, had successfully attempted the reformation Then they spoke with openness of the church. and freedom, and the enthusiasm of the fanatical. as well as the prudence of the wise, discovered themselves in their natural colours. them imagined, that the time was now come in which God himself was to dwell with his servants in an extraordinary manner, by celestial succours, and to establish upon earth a kingdom truly spiritual

tual and divine. Others, less sanguine and chime-CENT. rical in their expectations, flattered themselves, sizer. in. nevertheless, with the fond hopes of the approach PART of that happy period, in which the restoration of the church, which had been so long expected in vain, was to be accomplished, under the divine protection, by the labours and counsels of pious and eminent men. This sect was soon joined by great numbers, and (as usually happens in sudden revolutions of this nature) by many persons, whose characters and capacities were very different, tho' their views seemed to turn upon the same object. Their progress was rapid; for, in a very short space of time, their discourses, visions, and predictions excited commotions in a great part of Europe, and drew into their communion a prodigious multitude, whose ignorance rendered them easy victims to the illusions of enthusiasm. It is, however, to be observed, that as the leaders of this sect had fallen into that erroneous and chimerical notion, that the new kingdom of Christ, which they expected, was to be exempt from every kind of vice, and from the smallest degree of imperfection and corruption, they were not satisfied with the plan of reformation proposed by Luther. They looked upon it as much beneath the sublimity of their views, and, consequently, undertook a more perfect reformation, or, to express more properly their visionary enterprise, they proposed to found a new church, entirely spiritual, and truly divine.

IV. It is difficult to determine, with certainty, The first the particular spot that gave birth to that seditious motions of and pestilential sect of Anabaptists, whose tumul-the Anabaptists and desperate attempts were equally pernicious to the cause of religion, and the civil interests of mankind. Whether they first arose in Switzerland, Germany, or the Netherlands, is, as yet, a matter of debate, whose decision is of no great importance.

## History of the Anabaptists or Mennonites.

CENT. importance [i]. It is most probable, that several XVI.
S x c T. III. persons of this odious class made their appearance, PART II at the same time, in different countries; and we may fix this period soon after the dawn of the Reformation in Germany, when Luther arose to set bounds to the ambition of Rome. This appears from a variety of circumstances, and especially from this striking one, that the first Anabaptist doctors of any eminence, were, almost all, heads and leaders of particular and separate sects. it must be carefully observed, that though all these projecters of a new, unspotted, and perfect church, were comprehended under the general denomination of Anabaptists, on account of their opposing the baptism of infants, and their rebaptising such as had received that sacrament in a state of childhood in other churches, yet they were, from their very origin, subdivided into various sects, which differed from each other in points of no small moment. The most pernicious faction of all those that composed this motley multitude, was that which pretended that the founders of the new and perfect church, already mentioned, were under the direction of a divine impulse, and were armed against all opposition by the power of working miracles. It was this detestable faction that, in the year 1521, began their fanatical work, under the guidance of Munzer, Stubner, Storck, and other leaders of the same furious complexion, and excited the most unhappy tumults and commotions in Saxony and the adjacent countries. They employed at first the various arts of persuasion, in order to propagate their doctrine. They preached, exhorted, admonished.

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<sup>[</sup>i] Fueslin has attempted to examine, whether the Anabaptists first arose in Germany or Switzerland, in a German work, entitled, Beytrage zur Schweizerisch Reformat. Geschichte, tom. i. p. 190. tom. ii. p. 64, 65, 265, 327, 328. tom. iii. p. 323, but without success.

admonished and reasoned in a manner that CENT. seemed proper to gain the multitude, and related SECT. III. a great number of visions and revelations with PART IL which they pretended to have been favoured from above. But when they saw that these methods of making proselytes were not attended with such a rapid success as they fondly expected, and that the ministry of Luther, and other eminent reformers, was detrimental to their cause, they then had recourse to more expeditious measures, and madly attempted to propagate their fanatical doctrine by force of arms. Munzer and his associates assembled, in the year 1525; a numerous army, composed, for the most part, of the peasants of Suabia, Thuringia, Franconia, and Saxony, and, at the head of this credulous and deluded rabble, declared war against all laws, government and magistrates of every kind, under the chimerical pretext, that Christ was now to take the reins of civil and ecclesiastical government into his own hands, and to rule alone over the nations. But this seditious crowd was routed and dispersed, without much difficulty, by the elector of Saxony and other princes; Munzer, their ringleader, ignominiously put to death, and his factious counsellors scattered abroad in different places [e]

V. This bloody defeat of one part of these se-The proditious and turbulent fanatics, did not produce grees of this that effect upon the rest that might naturally have been expected; it rendered them, indeed, more timorous, but it did not open their eyes upon this delusion. It is certain, that, even after this period, numbers of them, who were infected with the same odious principles that occasioned the destruction

[1] See Seckendorf, Histor. Lutheranismi, lib. i. p. 192, 304. lib. ii. p. 13.—Sleidan, Commentar. lib. v. p. 47.—Jeach. Camerarii Vita Melanethonis, p. 44,

CENT. struction of Munzer, wandered about in Germany, SECT. III. Switzerland, and Holland, and excited the people PART II to rebellion by their seditious discourses. They gathered together congregations in several places, foretold in consequence of a divine commission, the approaching abolition of magistracy, and the downfal of civil rulers and governors; and while they pretended to be ambassadors of the Most High, insulted on many occasions, the Majesty of heaven by the most flagitious crimes. Those who distinguished themselves by the enormity of their conduct in this infamous sect, were Lewis Hetzer, Balthazar Hubmeyer, Felix Mentz, Conrad Grebel, Melchior Hoffman, and George Jacob; who, if their power had seconded their designs, would have involved all Switzerland, Holland, and Germany, in tumult and bloodshed [1]. A great part of this rabble seemed really delirious; and nothing more extravagant or more incredible can be imagined than the dreams and visions that were constantly arising in their disordered brains. Such of them as had some sparks of reason left, and had reflection enough to reduce their notions into a certain form, maintained among others, the following points of doctrine: "That the church of Christ ought to be exempt from all sin-that all things. ought to be in common among the faithful —that all usury, tythes, and tribute, ought to be entirely abolished—that the baptism invention of the an every Christian was invested power

<sup>[1]</sup> See Jo. Bapt. Ottii Annales Anabaptist. p. 21.—Jo. Hornbeckii Summa controvers. lib. v. p. 332.—Anton. Matthæi Analect. veteris ævi, tom. iv. p. 629, 677, 679.—Bernard. Raupachii Austriæ Evangel. tom, ii. p. 41—Jo. Georg. Schelhorn, in Actis ad Histor. Eccles. pertinentibus, tom. i. p. 100.—Godofr. Arnoldi Historia Hæretica, lib. xvi. cap. xxi. p. 727.—As also the German work of Fueslin, entitled; Beytragen zu der Schwieizer Reform. Geschichte.

power to preach the Gospel—and consequently, C. E. N. T. that the church stood in no need of ministers or Sect. III. pastors—that in the kingdom of Christ civil ma PARTII. gi-trates were absolutely useless—and that God still continued to reveal his will to chosen persons by dreams and visions [m].

It would betray, however, a strange ignorance, or an unjustifiable partiality, to maintain, that even all those that professed, in general, this absurd doctrine, were chargeable with that furious and brutal extravagance which has been mentioned as the character of too great a part of their sect. This was by no means the case; several of these enthusiasts discovered a milder and more pacific spirit, and were free from any other reproach, than that which resulted from the errors they maintained, and their too ardent desire of spreading them among the multitude. It may still further be affirmed with truth, that many of those who followed the wiser class of Anabaptists, nay, some who adhered to the most extravagant factions of that sect, were men of upright intentions and sincere piety, who were seduced into this mystery of fanaticism and iniquity, by their ignorance and simplicity on the one hand, and by a laudable desire of reforming the corrupt state of religion on the other.

VI. The progress of this turbulent sect in al-Severe pulmost all the countries of Europe, alarmed all that nishments had any concern for the public good. Kings, the Anaprinces, and sovereign states, exerted themselves baptists to check these rebellious enthusiasts in their career, by issuing out, first, severe edicts to restrain their violence, and employing, at length, capital punishments to conquer their obstinacy [n]. But

here

[m] This account of the doctrine of the Anabaptists is principally taken from the learned Fueslin already quoted.

[n] It was in Saxony, if I am not mistaken, and also in the year 1525, that penal laws were first enacted against this fana-Vol. IV.

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tical C E N T. here a maxim, already verified by repeated experi-SECT. III. ence, received a new degree of confirmation; for PART II the conduct of the Anabaptists, under the pressures of persecution, plainly shewed the extreme difficulty of correcting or influencing, by the prospect of suffering, or even by the teriors of death, minds that are either deeply tainted with the poison of fanaticism, or firmly bound by the ties of religion. In almost all the countries of Europe, an unspeakable number of these unhappy wretches preferred death, in its worst forms, to a retractation of their errors. Neither the view of the flames that were kindled to consume them, nor the ignominy of the gibbet, nor the terrors of the sword, could shake their invincible, but ill-placed constancy, or make them abandon tenets, that appeared dearer to them than life and all its enjoyments. The Mennonites have preserved voluminous records of the lives, actions, and unhappy fate of those of their sect, who suffered death for the crimes of rebellion or heresy, which were imputed to them [o]. Certain it is, that they were treated with severity; but it is much to be lamented that so little distinction was made between the members of this sect, when the sword of justice was unsheathed against them. Why were

tical tribe. These laws were renewed frequently in the years 1527, 1528, 1534. See a German work of the learned Kappius, entitled, Nachlesse von Reformations Urkunden, part I. p. 176.)—Charles V. incensed at the increasing impudence and iniquity of these enthusiasts, issued out against them severe edicts, in the years 1527 and 1529. (See Ottii Annales Anabapt. p. 45.)—The magistrates of Swinzerland treated, at first, with remarkable lenity and indulgence, the Anabaptists that lived under their government; but when it was found that this lenity rendered them still more enterprising and insolent, it was judged proper to have recourse to a different manner of proceeding. Accordingly the magistrates of Zurich denounced capital punishment against this riotous sect in the year 1525.

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[2] See Joach. Christ. Jehring, Prafat. ad Historium Min-

nonicarum, p. 3.

the innocent and the guilty involved in the same C E N T. tate? why were doctrines purely theological, or, SECT. III at worst, fanatical, punished with the same rigour ARTII that was shewn to crimes inconsistent with the peace and welfare of civil society? Those who had no other marks of peculiarity than their administering baptism to adult persons only, and their excluding the unrighteous from the external communion of the church, ought undoubtedly to have met with milder treatment than what was given to those seditious incendiaries, who were for unhinging all government and destroying all civil authority. Many suffered for errors they had embraced with the most upright intentions, seduced by the eloquence and fervour of their doctors, and persuading themselves that they were contributing to the advancement of true religion. But, as the greatest part of these enthusiasts had communicated to the multitude their visionary notions concerning the new spiritual kingdom that was soon to be erected, and the abolition of magistracy and civil government that was to be the immediate effect of this great revolution, this rendered the very name of Anabaptist unspeakably odious, and made it always excite the idea of a seditious incendiary, a pest to human society. It is true, indeed, that many Anabaptists suffered death, not on account of their being considered as rebellious subjects, but merely because they were judged to be incurable Heretics; for in this century the error of limiting the administration of baptism to adult persons only, and the practice of rebaptising such as had received that sacrament in a state of infancy, were looked upon as most flagitious and intolerable heresies. It is, nevertheless, certain, that the greatest part of these wretched sufferers owed their unhappy fate to their rebellious principles and tumultuous proceedings, and that many also were punished for their te-Gg2merity

CENT. merity and imprudence, which led them to the XVI. commission of various crimes. SECT.III.

The Anabaptists of Munster.

VII. There stands upon record a most shocking instance of this, in the dreadful commotions that were excited at Munster, in the year 1533, by certain Dutch Anabaptists, that chose that city as the scene of their horrid operations, and committed in it such deeds as would surpass all credibility, were they not attested in a manner that excludes every degree of doubt and uncertainty. A handful of madmen, who had got into their heads the visionary notion of a new and spiritual kingdom, soon to be established in an extraordinary manner, formed themselves into a society, under the guidance of a few illiterate leaders chosen out of the populace. And they persuaded, not only the ignorant multitude, but even several among the learned, that Munster was to be the seat of this new and heavenly Jerusalem, whose ghostly dominion was to be propagated from thence to all the ends of the earth. The ringleaders of this furious tribe were John Matthison, John Bockhold, a tailor of Leyden, one Gerhard, with some others, whom the blind rage of enthusiasm, or the still more culpable principles of sedition, had embarked in this extravagant and desperate cause. They made themselves masters of the city of Munster, deposed the magistrates, and committed all the enormous crimes, and ridiculous follies, which the most perverse and infernal imagination could suggest [p]. John Bockhold was proclaimed king and legislator of this new Hierarchy; but his reign was transitory, and his end

Bockholdt, or Bockelson, alias John of Leyden, who headed them at Munster, ran stark naked in the streets, married eleven wives, at the same time, to shew his approbation of polygamy, and entitled himself king of Sion: all which was but a very small part of the permicious follies of this mock n:onarch.

end deplorable. For the city of Munster was, in c e n 7. the year 1536, retaken after a long siege, by its Sect. III. bishop and sovereign, Count Waldeck, the New Part II. Jerusalem of the Anabaptists destroyed, and its mock monarch punished with a most painful and ignominious death [q]. The disorders occasioned by the Anabaptists at this period, not only in Westphalia, but also in other places [r], shewed

[9] See Anton. Corvini Narratio de miserabili Monaster. Ananapt. excidio, published first at Wittemberg in the year \$536.—Casp. Sagittar. Introduct. in Histor. Ecclesiast. tom. i. p. 537 & 835.-Herm. Hamelmann. Historia Rinati Evangelii in Urbe Monaster. in Operib. Genealogico Historicis, p. 1203 .- The elegant Latin Poem of Bolandus in Elegiac verse, entitled, Jo. Fabricii Bolandi Mitus Monasteriens Libri Decem. Colon. 1546, in 8vo.—Herm. Kerssenbrock, Histor. Belli Monaster .- Dan. Gerdes, Miscellan. Groningens. Nov. tom. ii. p. 377. Inis latter author speaks also of Bernard Rothman, an ecclesiastic of Munster, who had introduced the Reformation into that city, but afterwards was infected with the enthusiasm of the Anabaptists; and though. in other respects he had shewed him elf to be neither destitute of learning nor virtue, yet enlisted himself in this fanatical tribe, and had a share in their most turbulent and furious proceedings.

Ir The scenes of violence, tumult, and sedition, that were exhibited in Holland by this odious tribe, were also terrible. They formed the design of reducing the city of Leyden to ashes, but were happily prevented, and severely punished. John of Leyden, the Anabaptist king of Muniter, had taken it into his head that God had made him a present of the cities of Amsterdum, Deventur, and Wesel; in consequence thereof, he sent bishops to these three places, to preach bis gospel of sedition and carnage. About the beginning of the year 1535, twelve Anabaptists, of whom five were women, assembled at midnight in a private house at Amsterdam. One of them. who was a tailor by profession, fell into a trance, and after having preached and prayed during the space of four hours, stripped himself naked, threw his cloaths into the fire, and commanded all the assembly to do the same, in which he was obeyed without the least reluctance. He then ordered them to follow him through the streets in this state of nature, which they accordingly did, howling and bawling out, Woe! woe! the wrath of God! the wrath of God! wee to Babylon! When, after being seized and brought before the magistrates, Gg3clothes

CENT. too plainly to what horrid lengths the pernicious XVI. doctrines of this wrong-headed sect were adapted to lead the inconsiderate and unwary; and therefore it is not at all to be wondered, that the secular arm employed rigorous measures to extir-

pate a faction, which was the occasion, nay the source, of unspeakable calamities in so many

countries [s].

Menno Simon. VIII. While the terrors of death, in the most dreadful forms, were presented to the view of this miserable sect, and numbers of them were executed every day, without a proper distinction being made between the innocent and the guilty, those that escaped the severity of justice, were in the most discouraging situation that can well be imagined. On the one hand they beheld, with sorrow, all their hopes blasted by the total defeat of their brethren at *Munster*; and, on the other, they were filled with the most anxious apprehensions of the perils that threatened them on all sides. In this critical situation they derived much comfort

clothes were offered them to cover their indecency, they refused them obstinately, and cried aloud, "We are the naked truth." When they were brought to the scaffold, they sung and danced, and discovered all the marks of enthusiastic frenzy.—'These tumults were followed by a regular and deep-laid conspiracy, formed by Van Geelen (an envoy of the mock-king of Munster, who had made a very considerable number of proselytes) against the Magistrates of Amsterdam, with a design to wrest the government of that city out of their hands. This incendiary marched his fanatical troop to the town-house on the day appointed, drums beating and colours flying, and fixed there his head quarters. He was attacked by the burghers, assisted by some regular troops, and headed by several of the burgo-After an obstinate resistance, he was surmasters of the city. rounded with his whole troop, who were put to death in the severest and most dreadful manner, to serve as examples to the other branches of the sect, who were exciting commotions of a like nature in Friesland, Groningen, and other provinces and cities in the Netherlands.

[s] Ger. Brandt, Histor. Reform. Belgicæ, tom. i. lib. ii. p.

comfort and assistance from the counsels and zeal C E N T. of Menno Simon, a native of *Friesland*, who had XVI. formerly been a popish priest, and, as he himself Sect. III. confesses, a notorious profligate. This man went over to the Anabaptists, at first, in a clandestine manner, and frequented their assemblies with the utmost secrecy; but, in the year 1536, he threw off the mask, resigned his rank and office in the Romish church, and publicly embraced their About a year after this, he was communion. earnestly solicited by many of the sect to assume, among them, the rank and functions of a public teacher; and as he looked upon the persons, from whom this proposal came, to be exempt from the fanatical frenzy of their brethren at Munster (though, according to other accounts, they were originally of the same stamp, only rendered somewhat wiser by their sufferings), he yielded to their entreaties. From this period to the end of his days, that is, during the space of twenty-five years, he travelled from one country to another, with his wife and children exercising his ministry under pressures and calamities of various kinds that succeeded each other without interruption, and constantly exposed to the danger of falling a victim to the severity of the laws. East and West Friesland, together with the province of Groningen, were first visited by this zealous apostle of the Anabaptists; from thence he directed his course into Holland, Gelderland, Brabant, and Westphalia, continued it through the German provinces that lie on the coasts of the Bultic sea, and penetrated so far as Livonia. In all these places his ministerial labours were attended with remarkable success, and added to his sect a prodigious number of proselytes. Hence he is deservedly looked upon as the common chief of almost all the Anabaptists, and the parent of the sect that still subsists under that denomination.

CENT. success of this missionary will not appear very SECT. II. surprising to those who are acquainted with his PARTII character, spirit, and talents, and who have a just notion of the state of the Anabaptists at the period of time now under consideration. was a man of genius; though, as his writings shew, his genius was not under the direction of a very sound judgment. He had the inestimable advantage of a natural and persuasive eloquence, and his learning was sufficient to make him pass for an oracle in the eyes of the multitude. He appears, moreover, to have been a man of probity, of a meek and tractable spirit, gentle in his manners, pliable and obsequious in his commerce with persons of all ranks and characters, and extremely zealous in promoting practical religion and virtue, which he recommended by his example, as well as by his precepts. A man of such talents and dispositions could not fail to attract the admiration of the people, and to gain a great number of adherents wherever he exercised his ministry. But no where could he expect a more plentiful harvest than among the Anabaptists, whose ignorance and simplicity rendered them peculiarly susceptible of new impressions, and who, having been long accustomed to leaders that resembled frenetic Bacchanals more than Christian ministers, and often deluded by odious impostors, who involved them in endless perils and calamities, were rejoiced to find at length a teacher, whose doctrine and manners seemed to promise them more prosperous days [t].

IX. Menno

<sup>[1]</sup> Idenno was born at Witmarsum, a village in the neighbourhood of Bolswert in Friesland, in the year 1505, and not in 1496, as most writers tell us. After a life of toil, peril, and agitation, he departed in peace in the year 1561, in the duchy of Holstein, at the country seat of a certain nobleman, not far from the city of Oldesloe, who, moved with compassion at a view of the perils to which Menno was exposed, and the snares that

IX. Menno drew up a plan of doctrine and CENT. discipline of a much more mild and moderate SECT. III. nature than that of the furious and fanatical Ana-PART II. baptists already mentioned, but somewhat more His docsevere, though more clear and consistent, than winc. the doctrine of some of the wiser branches of that sect, who aimed at nothing more than restoration of the Christian church to its primitive purity.

Accordingly he condemned the plan of ecclesiastical discipline, that was founded on the prospect of a new kingdom, to be miraculously established by Jesus Christ on the ruins of civil government, and the destruction of human rulers, and which had been the fatal and pestilential source of such dreadful commotions, such execrable rebellions, and such enormous crimes. declared, publicly, his dislike of that doctrine, which pointed out the approach of a marvellous reformation in the church by the means of a new and extraordinary effusion of the Holy Spirit. He expressed his abhorrence of the licentious tenets, which several of the Anabaptists had maintained, with respect to the lawfulness of polygamy and divorce; and, finally considered, as unworthy of toleration, those fanatics who were of opinion that the Holy Ghost continued to descend into the minds of many chosen believers, in as extraordinary a manner as he did at the first establishment of

that were daily laid for his ruin, took him, together with certain of his associates, into his protection and gave him an asylum. We have a particular account of this famous Anabaptist in the Cimbria Literata of Mollerus, tom. ii. p. 835. See also Herm. Schyn, Plenior. Deduct. Histor. Mennon. cap. vi. p. 116.—The writings of Menno, which are almost all composed in the Dutch language, were published in folio at Amsterdam, in the year 1651. An excessively diffuse and rambling style, frequent, and unnecessary repetitions, an irregular and confused method, with other defects of equal moment, render the perusal of these productions highly disagrecable.

CENT. of the Christian church; and that he testified this SECT. III. peculiar presence to several of the faithful, by PART II. miracles, predictions, dreams, and visions of various kinds. He retained, indeed, the doctrines commonly received among the Anabaptists in relation to the baptism of infants, the Millenium, or thousand years reign of Christ upon earth, the exclusion of magistrates from the Christian church, the abolition of war, and the prohibition of oaths enjoined by our Saviour, and the vanity, as well as the pernicious effects, of human science. But while Menno retained these doctrines in a general sense, he explained and modified them in such a manner, as made them resemble the religious tenets that were universally received in the protestant churches; and this rendered them agreeable to many, and made them appear inoffensive even to numbers who had no inclination to embrace them. It however so happened, that the nature of the doctrines considered in themselves, the eloquence of Menno, which set them off to such advantage, and the circumstances of the times, gave a high degree of credit to the religious system of this famous teacher among the Anabaptists, so that it made a rapid progress in that And thus it was in consequence of the ministry of Menno, that the different sorts of Anabaptists agreed together in excluding from their communion the fanatics that dishonoured it, and in renouncing all tenets that were detrimental to the authority of civil government, and by an unexpected coalition, formed themselves into one community [u].

X. To

[u] These facts shew us plainly how the famous question concerning the origin of the modern Anabaptists may be resolved. The Monnonites oppose, with all their might, the account of their descent from the ancient Anabaptists, which we find in so many writers, and would willingly give the modern Anabaptists

X. To preserve a spirit of union and concord C E N To in a body composed of such a motley multitude S E C I. III.

Of P A R T II.

nabaptists a more honourable origin. (See Schyn, Histor. Men The origin nonuar. cap. viii. ix. xxi. p. 223.) The reason of their zeal of the sects in this matter is evident. Their situation has rendered them that have They live, as it were, in the midst of their enemies, started up and are constantly filled with an uneasy apprehension, that some among the Anabapday or other, malevolent zealots may take occasion, from their tists. supposed origin, to renew against them the penal laws, by which the seditious Anabaptists of ancient times suffered in such a dreadful manner. At least, they imagine that the odium under which they lie, will be greatly dominished, if they can prove, to the satisfaction of the public, the falsehood of that generally received opinion, that " the Mennonites are the descendants of the Anabaptists;" or, to speak more properly, "the same individual sect, purged from the fanaticism that formerly disgraced it, and rendered wiser than their ancestors, by reflection and suffering."

After comparing diligently and impartially together what has been alledged by the Mennonites and their adversaries in relation to this matter, I cannot see what it is properly, that forms the subject of their controversy; and if the merits of the cause be stated with accuracy and perspicuity, I do not see how there can be any dispute at all about the matter now under consideration: For, in the

First place, if the Mennonites mean nothing more than this, that Menno whom they considered as their parent and their chief, was not infected with those odious opinions which drew the just severity of the laws upon the Anabaptists of Munster; that he neither looked for a new and spotless kingdom that was to be miraculously erected on earth, nor excited the multitude to depose magistrates, and abolish civil government; that he neither deceived himself, nor imposed upon others, by fanatical pretensions to dreams and visions of a supernatural kind; if (I say) this be all that the Mennonites mean, when they speak of their chief, no person, acquainted with the history of their sect, will pretend to contradict them. Nay, even those who maintain that there was an immediate and intimate connection between the ancient and modern anabaptists, will readily allow, to be true, all that has been here said of Menno.—2diy, If the Anabaptists maintain, that such of their churches as received their doctrine and discipline from Menno, have not only discovered, without interruption a pacific sprit and an unlimited submission to civil government (abstaining from every thing that carried the remotest aspect of sedition, and shewing the utmost abhorrence of wars and bloodshed), but have even banished from

CENT. of dissonant members, required more than human set. III power; and Menno neither had, nor pretended PARTII.

from their confessions of faith, and their religious instructions, all those tenets and principles that led on the ancient Anabaptists to disobedience, violence and rebellion; all this again will be readily granted.—And if they allege, in the third place, that even the Anabaptists who lived before Menno, were not all so delirious as Munzer, nor so outrageous as the fanatical part of that sect, that rendered their memory eternally odious by the enormities they committed at Munster; that, on the contrary, many of these ancient Anabaptists abstained religiously from all acts of violence and sedition, followed the pious examples of the ancient Waldenses, Henricians, Petrobrussians, Hussites, and Wickliffites, and adopted the doctrine and discipline of Menno, as soon as that new parent arose to reform and patronize the sect; all this will be allowed without hesitation.

But, on the other hand, the Mennonites may assert many. things in defence of the purity of their origin, which cannot be admitted by any person who is free from prejudice, and well acquainted with their history. If they maintain, 1st, that none of their sect descended, by birth, from those Anabaptists, who involved Germany and other countries in the most dreadful calamities, or that none of these furious fanatics adopted the doctrine and discipline of Menno, they may be easily refuted by a great number of facts and testimonies, and particularly by the declarations of Menno himself, who glories in his having conquered the ferocity, and reformed the lives and errors of several members of this pestilential sect. Nothing can be more certain than this fact, viz. that the first Mennonite congregations were composed of the different sorts of Anabaptists already mentioned, of those who had been always inoffensive and upright, and of those who, before their conversion by the ministry of Menno, had been seditious fanatics. Nor can the acknowledgement of this incontestible fact be a just matter of reproach to the Mennonites, or be more dishonourable to them, than it is to us, that our ancestors were warmly attached to the idolatrous and extravagant worship of paganism or popery.— Again; it will not be possible for us to agree with the Mennonites, if they maintain, 2d/y, that their sect does not retain, at this day, any of those tenets, or even any remains of those opinions and doctrines, which led the seditious and turbulent Anabaptists of old to the commission of so many, and of such enormous crimes. For, not to mention Menno's calling the Anabaptist's of Munster his Breibren (a denomination indeed somewhat softened by the epithet of erring, which he joined to it), it is undoubtedly true, that the doctrine concerning the nature

## CHAP. III. History of the Anabaptists or Mennonites.

to have, supernatural succours. Accordingly, CENT. the seeds of dissension were, in a little time, sown SECT. III, among this people. About the middle of this PARTIE. century, a warm contest, concerning Excommunication, was excited by several Anabaptists, headed by Leonard Bowenson and Theodore Philip; and its fruits are yet visible in that divided sect. These men carried the discipline of excommunication to an enormous degree of severity and ri-They not only maintained, that open transgressors, even those who sincerely deplored and lamented their faults, should, without any previous warning or admonition, be expelled from the communion of the church; but were also audacious enough to pretend to exclude the persons, thus excommunicated, from all intercourse with their wives, husbands, brothers, sisters, children, and relations. The same persons, as might naturally be expected from this sample of their severity, were harsh and rigid in their manners, and were for imposing upon their brethren a course of moral discipline, which was difficult and austere in the highest degree. Many of the Anabaptists protested against this, as unreasonable and unnecessary;

nature of Christ's kingdom, or the church of the New Testament, which led by degrees the ancient Anabaptists to those furious acts of rebellion that have rendered them so odious, is by no means effaced in the minds of the modern Mennonites. It is, indeed, weakened and modified in such a manner as to have lost its noxious qualities, and to be no longer pernicious in its influence; but it is not totally renounced nor abolished .- I shall not now enquire how far even the reformed and milder sect of Menno has been, in time past, exempt from tumults and commotions of a grievous kind, nor shall I examine what passes at this day among the Anabaptists in general, or in particular branches of that sect; since it is certain, that the more eminent communities of that denomination, particularly those that flourish in North Holland, and the places adjacent, beho'd fanatics with the utmost aversion, as appears evidently from this circumstance, among others, that they will not suffer the people called Quakers to enter into their communion.

CENT cessary; and thus the community was, all of a XVI suctiff, sudden, divided into two sects; of which the one PARTH treated transgressors with lenity and moderation,

while the other proceeded against them with the utmost rigour. Nor was this the only difference that was observable in the conduct and manners of these two parties; since the latter was remarkable for the sorded austerity that reigned in their rules of life and practice; while the former, considering more wisely the present state of human nature, were less severe in their injunctions, and were not altogether regardless of what is called decent, agreeable, and ornamental in life and manners. Minnso employed his most vigorous efforts to heal these divisions, and to restore peace and concord in the community; but when he perceived. that his attempts were vain, he conducted himself in such a manner as he thought the most proper to maintain his credit and influence among both For this purpose he declared himself for neither side, but was constantly trimming between the two, as long as he lived; at one time, discovering an inclination towards the austere Anabaptists; and, at another, seeming to prefer the milder discipline and manners of the more moderate beethren. But in this he acted in opposition to the plainest dictates of prudence; and accordingly the high degree of authority he enjoyed, rendered his inconstancy and irresolution not only disagreeable to both parties, but also the means of inflaming, instead of healing, their divisions [w].

The rigid and moderate Anabaptists. XI. These two sects are, to this very day, distinguished by the denominations of fine and gross,

<sup>[10]</sup> See the Historia Bellorum et Certaminum quæ, ab A. 1615 inter Memonitas contigerunt, which was published by an anonymous Mennonite.—See also a German work, entitled, Sin. Ited Kues, Nachrichten von dem Zustande der Mennoniten, published in 8vo at Jena, in the year 1743.

gross [x], or, to express the distinction in more in-  $C \in N$  T telligible terms, into rigid and moderate Anabap- XVI.
tists. The former observe, with the most religi- Sect. III. ous accuracy, veneration, and precision, the ancient doctrine, discipline, and precepts of the purer sort of Anabaptists; the latter depart much more from the primitive sentiments, manners, and institutions of their sect, and approach nearer to those of the protestant churches. The gross or moderate Anabaptists consisted at first, of the inhabitants of a district in North-Holland, called Waterland, and hence their whole sect was distinguished by the denomination of Waterlandians [y]. The fine or rigid part of that community were, for the most part, natives of Flunders; and hence their sect acquired the denomination of Flemingians, or Flandrians. But new dissensions and contests arose among these rigid Anabaptists, not, indeed,

[x] The terms fine and gross are a literal translation of groben and feinen, which are the German denominations used to distinguish these two sects. The same terms have been introduced among the Protestants in Holland; the fine denoting a set of people, whose extraordinary, and sometimes fanatical devotion, resembles that of the English Methodists; while the gross, is applied to the generality of Christians, who make no extraordinary pretensions to uncommon degrees of sanctity and devotion.

[y] See Frid. Spanhemii Elenchus Controvers. Theol. Opp. tom. 111. p. 772. The Waterlandians were also called Johannites, from John de Ries, who was of great use to them in many respects, and who, assisted by Lubert Gerard, composed their confession of faith in the year 1580. This confession (which far surpasses both in point of simplicity and wisdom all the other confessions of the Mennonites) has passed through several editions, and has been lately republished by Herman Schyn, in his Histor. Mennon. cap. vii. p. 172. was also illustrated in an ample Commentary, in the year 1686, by Peter Joannis, a native of Holland, and pastor among the Waterlandians. It has, however, been alleged, that, this famous production is by no means the general confession of the Waterlandians, but the private one only of that particular congregation, of which its author was the pastor. Rues, Nuchrichten, p. 93, 94.

CENT. concerning any point of doctrine, but about the SECT III. manner of treating persons that were to be excom-PARIL municated, and other matters of inferior mo-

ment. Hence a new schism arose, and they were subdivided into new sects, distinguished by the appellations of Flandrians and Frieslanders, who differed from each other in their manners and discipline. To these were added a third, who took the name of their country, like the two former, and were called Germans; for the Anabaptists of Germany passed in shoals into Holland and the Netherlands. But, in process of time, the greatest part of these three sects came over, by degrees, to the moderate community of the Waterlandians, with whom they lived in the strictest bonds of peace and union. Those among the rigid Anabaptists, who refused to follow this example of moderation, are still known by the denomination of the Old Flemingians, or Flandrians, but are few in number, when compared with the united congregations of the milder sects now mentioned.

The source their doctrina

XII. No sooner had the ferment of enthusiasm from which subsided among the Mennonites, than all the difnites drew ferent sects, into which they had been divided, unanimously agreed to draw the whole system of their religious doctrine from the Holy Scriptures alone. To give a satisfactory proof of the sincerity of their resolution in this respect, they took care to have Confessions drawn up, in which their sentiments concerning the Deity, and the manner of serving him, were expressed in the terms and phrases of Holy Writ. The most ancient, and also the most respectable of these Confessions, is that which we find among the Waterlandians. Several others, of latter date, were also composed, some for the use of large communities, for the people of a whole district, and which were consequently submitted to the inspection of the magistrate; others designed only for the benefit of private societics.

cieties [z]. It might not, perhaps, be amiss to CENT. enquire, whether all the tenets received among XVI. the Mennonites are faithfully exhibited and plain-Sect. III. ly expressed in these Confessions, or whether several points be not there omitted which relate to the internal constitution of this sect, and would give us a complete idea of its nature and tendency. One thing is certain, that whoever peruses these Confessions with an ordinary degree of attention, will easily perceive, that those tenets which appear detrimental to the interests of civil society, particularly those that relate to the prerogatives of magistracy, and the administration of oaths, are expressed with the utmost caution, and embellished with the greatest art, to prevent their bearing an alarming aspect. At the same time, the more discerning observer will see, that these embellishments are intended to disguise the truth, and that the doctrine of the Anabaptists, concerning the critical points above mentioned, are not represented, in their public Confessions, in their real colours.

XIII. The ancient Anabaptists, who trusted in Their relian extraordinary direction of the Holy Spirit, gion was were (under the pretended influence of so infalli-into a system.

[2] See an account of these Confessions in Schyn's Plenior Deduct. Hist. Mennon. cap. iv. p. 78. 115. where he maintains, that "these Confessions prove as great a uniformity among the Memonites, in relation to the great and fundamental doctrines of religion, as can be pretended to by any other Chris ian community." But should the good man even succeed in persuading us of this boasted uniformity, he will yet never be able to make his assertion go down with many of his own brothren, who are, to this day, quarrelling about several points of religion, and who look upon matters, which appear to him of little consequence, as of high moment and importance to the cause of true piety. And, indeed, how could any of the Mennonites, before this present century, believe what Schyn here athrms, since it is well known, that they disputed about matters which he treats with contempt, as if they had been immediately connected with their éternal interests?

Vol. IV.

CENT. ble a guide) little solicitous about composing a SECT. III. system of religion, and never once thought of in-PARTII stilling into the minds of the people just sentiments of the Deity. Hence the warm dissensions that arose among them, concerning matters of the highest consequence, such as the Divinity of CHRIST, Polygamy, and Divorce. Menno and his disciples made some attempts to supply this de-But nevertheless we find, after time, that the Mennonites, more especially those of the rigid class, carried the freedom of their religious speculations to such an excessive height, as bordered upon extravagance. This circumstance alone, were there no other, proves that the heads of this sect employed the smallest part of their zeal to prevent the introduction and propagation of error; and that they looked upon sanctity of life and manners alone as the essence of true religion. The Waterlandians, indeed, and after them the other Anabaptists, were obliged, at length, to draw up a summary of their doctrine, and to lay it before the public, in order to remove the odium that was cast upon them, on account of their bold tenets, and their extravagant disputes, which were likely to involve them in the greatest calamities. But these Confessions of the Mennonites were, in reality, little more than a method of defence, to which they were reduced by the opposition they met with, and must therefore be rather considered as an expedient to avert the indignation of their enemies, than as articles of doctrine, which all of them, without exception, were obliged to believe. For we do not find among the Mennonites (a part of the modern Waterlandians excepted) any injunction, which expressly prohibits individuals from entertaining or propagating religious opinions different from the public creed of the community. And, indeed, when we look attentively into the nature and constitution of this sect.

sect, it will appear to have been, in some measure, C E N T. XVI. founded upon this principle, that practical piety S E C T. III. is the essence of religion, and that the surest and ARTII. most infallible mark of the true church is the sanctity of its members; it is at least certain, that this principle was always universally adopted by the Anabaptists.

XIV. If we are to form our judgment of the The religireligion of the Mennonites from their public creeds Mennoand confessions, we shall find, that though it va-nites ries widely from the doctrine of the Lutherans, yet in most things it differs but little from that of the Reformed church. They consider the sacraments in no other light, than as signs or symbols of the spiritual blessings administered in the Gospel; and their ecclesiastical discipline seems to be almost entirely the same with that of the Presbyterians. There are, however, peculiar tenets, by which they are distinguished from all other religious communities, and these may be reduced under three heads. For it is observable, that there are certain doctrines, which are held in common by all the various sects of the Mennonites; others, which are only received in some of the more emenent and numerous sects of that community (such were the sentiments of MENNO, which hindered him from being universally acceptable to the Anabaptists); and others, again, which are only to be found among the more obscure and inconsiderable societies of that denomination. These last, indeed, appear and vanish, alternately, with the transitory sects that adopt them, and therefore do not deserve to employ our attention any farther in this place.

XV. The opinions that are held in common by The great the Mennonites seem to be all derived from this principle on leading and fundamental principle, that the king-general dom which Christ established upon earth is a visible the Menno-church, or community, into which the holy and the rites is just founded.

CENT just are alone to be admitted, and which is const-XVI SECT. III. quently exempt from all those institutions and rules PART II. of discipline, that have been invented by human wisdom, for the correction and reformation of the wicked.

This fanatical principle was frankly avowed by the ancient Mennonites: their more immediate descendants, however, began to be less igenuous; and in their public Confessions of Faith, they either disguised it under ambiguous phrases, or expressed themselves as if they meant to renounce it entirely. To renounce it entirely was impossible, without falling into the greatest inconsistency and undermining the very foundation of those doctrines that distinguished them from all other Christian societies [a]. And yet it is certain that the present Mennonites, as they have, in many other respects, departed from the principles and maxims of their ancestors; so have they given a striking

[a] That they did not renounce it entirely, is evident from. their own Creeds and Confessions, even from those in which the greatest caution has been employed to conceal the principles that rendered their ancestors odious, and to disguise whatever might render themselves liable to suspicion. For example, they speak in the most pompous terms concerning the dignity excellence, utility, and divine origin, of civil magistrates; and I am willing to suppose that they speak their real sentiments in this matter. But when they proceed to give reasons that prevent their admitting magistrates into their communion, they discover unwarily the very principles which they are otherwise so studious to conceal. Thus in the thirtieth article of the Waterlandian Confession, they declare, that " Jesus Christ has not comprehended the institution of civil magistracy in his spiritual kingdom, in the Church of the New Testament, nor has he added it to the offices of his church:" The Latin words are: " Potestatem hanc politicam Dominus Jesus in regno suo spirituali, ecclesia Novi Testamenti, non instituit, neque hanc officiis ecclesiæ suæ adjunxit." Hence it appears, that the Mennouites look upon the church of the New Testament, as a holy republic, inaccessible to the wicked, and, consequently, exempt from those institutions and laws that are necessary to oppose the progress of iniquity. Why then do they not speak plainly, when they deliver their doctrine concerning the nature of the church, instead of affecting ambiguity and evasions?

striking instance of defection in the case now be-C EN T. fore us, and have almost wholly renounced this SECT III. fundamental doctrine of their sect, relating to the PARTIL nature of the Christian church. A dismal experience has convinced them of the absurdity of this chimerical principle, which the dictates of reason, and the declarations of scripture, had demonstrated sufficiently, but without effect. Now, that the Mennonites have opened their eyes, they seem to be pretty generally agreed about the foldowing tenets: First, That there is an invisible church, which is universal in its extent, and is composed of members from all the sects and communities that bear the Christian name: Secondly, That the mark of the true church is not, as their former doctrine supposed, to be sought for in the unspotted sanctity of all its members (since they acknowledge that the visible church is promiscuously composed of the righteous and the wicked), but in the knowledge of the truth, as it was delivered by Christ, and in the agreement of all the members of the church in professing and defending it.

XVI. Notwithstanding all this, it is manifest, Their pecubeyond all possibility of contradiction, that the liar tenets' religious opinions which still distinguish the Men-trues. nonites from all other Christian communities, flow directly from the ancient doctrine of the Anabaptists concerning the nature of the church. in consequence of this doctrine, that they admit none to the sacrament of baptism but persons that are come to the full use of their reason; because infants are incapable of binding themselves by a solemn vow to a holy life, and it is altogether uncertain whether or no, in maturer years, they will be saints or sinners: It is in consequence of the same doctrine, that they neither admit civil rulers into their communion, nor allow any of their members to perform the functions of magistracy; for where there

Hh3

are

CENT. are no malefactors, magistrates are useless. Hence do they pretend also to deny the lawfulness of repel-YARIN ling force by force, and consider war, in all its shapes,

as unchristian and unjust; for as those who are perfectly boly, can neither be provoked by injuries, nor commit them, they do not stand in need of the force of arms, either for the purposes of resentment or defence. It is still the same principle that excites in them the utmost aversion to the execution of justice, and more especially to capital punishments; since, according to this principle, there are no transgressions nor crimes in the kingdom of Christ, and consequently no occasion for thearm of the judge. Nor can it be imagined, that they should rejuse to confirm their testimony by an oath upon any other foundation than this, that the perfect members of a holy church can neither dissemble nor deceive. It was certainly then the ancient doctrine of the Anabaptists, concerning the sanctity of the church, that gave rise to the tenets now mentioned, and that was the source of that rigid and scvere discipline, which excited such tumults and divisions among the members of that community.

Their systauiy.

XVII. The rules of moral discipline, that were tem of mo-! formerly observed by the Mennonites, were rigorous and austere in the highest degree, and thus every way conformable to the fundamental principle, which has been already mentioned as the source of all their peculiar tenets. It is somewhat doubtful whether these rules still subsist and are respected among them; but it is certain, that in the times of old their moral precepts were very severe. And indeed it could not well be otherwise; for, when these people had once got it into their heads, that sanctity of manners was the only genuine mark of the true church, it may well be imagined, that they would spare no pains to obtain this honourable character for their sect; and that, for this purpose, they would use the strictest precautions

to guard their brethren against disgracing their c f N T. profession by immoral practices. Hence it was, XVI. that they unanimously, and no doubt justly, ex-PARILL alted the rules of the Gospel, on account of their transcendent purity. They alleged, that CHRIST had promulgated a new law of life, far more perfect than that which had been delivered by Moses and the Prophets; and they excluded from their communion all such as deviated, in the least, from the most rigorous rules of simplicity and gravity in their looks, their gestures, their clothing, and their table: all whose desires surpassed the dictates of mere necessity: nay, even all who observed a certain decorum in their manners, and paid a decent regard to the innocent customs of the But this primitive austerity is greatly diminished in the more considerable sects of the Mennonites, and more especically among the Waterlandians and Germans. The opulence they have acquired, by their industry and commerce, has relaxed their severity, softened their manners, and rendered them less insensible of the sweets of life; so that at this day the Mennonite congregations furnish their pastors with as much matter of censure and admorition as any other Christian community [b]. There are, however, still some remains of the abstinence and severity of manners. that prevailed formerly among the Anabaptists; but these are only to be found among some of the smaller sects of that persuasion, and more particularly among those who live remote from great and populous cities.

XVIII. The particular sentiments and opinions The singuthat divided the more considerable societies of the lar tenet H h 4 Mennonites, of some Mennonites, sects.

[b] It is certain, that the Mennonites in Holland, at this day, are, in their tables, their equipages, and their country seats, the most luxurious part of the Dutch nation. This is more especially true of the Mennonites of Amsterdam, who are very numerous and extremely opulent.

CENT. Mennonites, were those that follow: 1. Menno XVI. denied that Christ derived from his mother the Sect. III. body he assumed; and thought, on the contrary, that it was produced out of nothing, in the womb of that blessed virgin, by the creating power of the Holy Ghost [c]. This opinion is yet firmly maintained by the ancient Flemingians, or rigid Anabaptists; but has, long since, been renounced by

[c] This is the account that is given of the opinion of Menno by Herman Schyn, in his Plenior Deduct. Hist. Menonit. p. · 164, 165. which other writers represent in a different manner. After an attentive perusal of several passages in the writings of Menno, where he professedly handles this very subject, it appears to me more than probable, that he inclined to the opinion attributed to him in the text, and that it was in this sense only, that he supposed Christ to be clothed with a divine and celestial body. For that may, without any impropriety, be called celestial and divine, which is produced immediately, in consequence of a creating act, by the Holy Ghost. It must, however, be acknowledged, that Menno does not seem to have been unchangeably wedded to this opinion. For in several places be expresses himself ambiguously on this head, and even sometimes falls into inconsistencies. & From hence, perhaps, it might not be unreasonable to conclude, that he renounced indeed the common opinion concerning the origin of Christ's human nature; but was pretty much undetermined with respect to the hypothesis, which, among many that were proposed, it was proper to substitute in its place. D' See Fueslini Centuria I. Epistolar. a Reformator. Helveticis scriptar. p. 383.—Be that as it may, Menno is generally considered as the author of this opinion concerning the origin of Christ's body, which is still embraced by the more rigid part of his followers. It appears probable, nevertheless, that this opinion was much older than his time, and was only adopted by him with the other tenets of the Anabap-As a proof of this, it may be observed, that Bolandus, in his Poem, entitled, Motus Monasteriensis, lib. x. v. 49. plainly declares, that many of the Anabaptists of Munster (who certainly had not been instructed by Menno) held this very doctrine in relation to Christ's incarnation:

> Esse (Christum) Deum statuunt alii, sed corpore carnem, Humanam sumto sustinuisse negant: At Diam mentem, tenuis quasi fauce canalis.

At Diam mentem, tenuis quasi fauce canalis, Per Mariæ corpus virginis isse ferunt.

by all the other sects of that denomination [d]. CENT.

2. The more austere Mennonites, like their SECT. III. forefathers, not only animadvert, with the most PARTII, unrelenting severity, upon actions manifestly criminal, and evidently repugnant to the divine laws, but also treat, in the same manner, the smallest marks of an internal propensity to the pleasures of sense, or of a disposition to comply with the customs of the world. They condemn, for example, elegant dress, rich furniture, every thing, in a word, that looks like ornament, or surpasses the bounds of absolute necessity. Their conduct also to offenders is truly merciless; for they expel them from the church without previous admonition, and never temper the rigour of their judgment by an equitable consideration of the infirmities of nature in this imperfect state. other Mennonites are by no means chargeable with this severity towards their offending brethren; they exclude none from their communion but the obstinate contemners of the divine laws; nor do they proceed to this extremity even with regard to such, until repeated admonitions have proved ineffectual to reform them.—3. The more rigid Mennonites look upon those that are excommunicated as the pests of society, who are to be avoided upon all occasions, and to be banished from all the comforts of social intercourse. Neither the voice of Nature, nor the ties of blood, are allowed to plead in their behalf, or to procure them

<sup>[</sup>d] Many writers are of opinion, that the Waterlandians, of all the other Anabaptists, shewed the strongest propensity to adopt the doctrine of Menno, relating to the origin of Christ's body. See Histoire des Anabaptistes, p. 223.—Ceremonies et Coutumes de tous les Peuples du monde, tom. iv. p. 200. But that these writers are mistaken, is abundantly manifest from the public Confession of Faith of the Waterlandians, composed by Ries. See also, for a farther refutation of this mistake, Herm. Schyn, Deductio Plenior Histor. Mennonit. p. 165.

CENT them the smallest degree of indulgence.

SECT. III. a case the exchange of good offices, the sweets of PARTIL friendly conversation, and the mutual effusions of tenderness and love, are cruelly suspended, even between parents and children, husbands and wives, and also in all the other endearing relations of human life.—But the more moderate branches of this community have wisely rejected this unnatural discipline, and look upon the honour and sanctity of the church to be sufficiently vindicated, when its members avoid a close and particular intimacy with lose who have been expelled from its communion. 4. The rigid Anabaptists enjoin it as an obligation upon their disciples, and the members of their community, to wash the feet of their guests as a token of brotherly love and affection, and in obedience to the example of Christ, which they suppose, in this case, to have the force of a positive command; and hence they are sometimes called Podoniptæ. But the other Mennonites deny that Christ meant, in this instance of his goodness and condescension, to recommend this custom to the imitation of his followers, or to give his example, in this case, the authority of a positive precept.

The state of learning and philosopay amon- the Anabaptists.

XIX. The Anabaptists, however divided on other subjects, were agreed in their notions of learning and philosophy, which, in former times, they unanimously considered as the pests of the Christian church, and as highly detrimental to the progress of true religion and virtue. Hence it happened, that among a considerable number of writers who, in this century, employed their pens in the defence of that sect, there is none whose labours bear any inviting marks of learning or genius. The rigid Mennonices persevere still in the barbarous system of their ancestors, and, neglecting totally the improvement of the mind and the culture of the sciences, devote themselves entirely entirely to trade, manual industry, and the me-CENT. chanic arts. The Waterlandians, indeed, are SECT. III. honourably distinguished from all the other Ana-PART II. baptists in this, as well as in many other respects. For they permit several members of their community to frequent the public universities, and there to apply themselves to the study of languages, history, antiquities, and more especially of physic, whose usefulness and importance they do not pretend to deny; and hence it happens, that in our times, so many pastors among the Mennonites assume the title and profession of physicians. Nay more; it is not unusual to see Anabaptists of this more humane and moderate class engaged even in philosophical researches, on the excellence and utility of which their eyes are, at length, so far opened, as to make them acknowledge their importance to the well-being of society. It was, no doubt, in consequence of this change of sentiment that they have erected, not long ago, a public seminary of learning at Amsterdam, in which there is always a person of eminent abilities chosen as professor of philosophy. But, though these moderate Anabaptists acknowledge the benefit which may be derived to civil society from the culture of philosophy and the sciences, yet they still persevere so far in their ancient prejudices, as to consider theology as a system that has no connexion with them; and, consequently, they are of opinion, that, in order to preserve it pure and untainted, the utmost caution must be used not to blend the dictates of philosophy with the doctrines of religion. It is farther to be observed, that, in the present times, even the Flemish, or rigid Anabaptists begin gradually to divest themselves of their antipathy to learning, and allow their brethren to apply themselves to the study of languages, history, and the other sciences.

XX. That

sion into a **mul**titude of sects.

CENT. XX. That simplicity and ignorance, of which SECT. III. the ancient Anabaptists boasted, as the guardians PARTILOF their piety and the sources of their felicity, con-Their divithat reigned among them, from even their first rise, in a degree unknown and unexperienced in any other Christian community. This will appear evident to such as enquire, with the smallest attention, into the more immediate causes of their dissensions. For it is observable, that their most vehement contests had not for their object any difference in opinion concerning the doctrines or mysteries of religion, but generally turned upon matters relating to the conduct of life, on what was lawful, decent, just, and pious in actions and manuers, and what, on the contrary, was to be considered as criminal or unseemly. These disputes were a natural consequence of their favourite principle, that boliness of life, and purity of manners, were the authentic marks of the true church. But the misfortune lay here, that, being ignorant themselves, and under the guidance of persons whose knowledge was little superior to theirs, they were unacquainted with the true method of determining, in a multitude of cases, what was pious, laudabie, and lawful, and what was impious, unbecoming, and criminal. The criterion they employed for this purpose was neither the decision of right reason, nor the authority of the divine laws, accurately interpreted; since their ignorance rendered them incapable of using these means of arriving at the truth. They judged, therefore, of these matters by the suggestions of fancy, and the opinions of others. But as this method of discerning between right and wrong, decent and indecent, was extremely uncertain and precarious, and could not but produce a variety of decisions, according to the different feelings, fancies, tempers, and capacities of different persons, hence naturally

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naturally arose diversity of sentiments, debates, CENTand contests of various kinds. These debates XVI. produced schisms and divisions, which are never PARTIL more easily excited, nor more obstinately fomented and perpetuated, than where ignorance, the true source of bigotry, prevails.

XXI. The Mennonites, after having been long The first so-in an uncertain and precarious situation, obtained lid settle-ment of the a fixed and unmolested settlement in the United Mennonites Provinces, under the shade of a legal toleration in the Unitprocured for them by WILLIAM, prince of Orange, ecs. the glorious founder of Belgic liberty. This illustrious chief, who acted from principle in allowing liberty of conscience and worship to Christians of different denominations, was moreover engaged, by gratitude, to favour the Mennonites, who had assisted him, in the year 1572, with a considerable sum of money, when his coffers were almost exhausted [e]. The fruits, however, of this toleration, were not immediately enjoyed by all the Anabaptists that were dispersed through the different provinces of the rising republic; for, in several places, both the civil magistrates and the clergy made a long and obstinate opposition to the will of the prince in this matter; particularly in the province of Zealand and the city of Amsterdam, where the remembrance' of the plots the Anabaptists had laid, and the tumults they had excited, was still fresh in the minds of the people [f]. This opposition, indeed, was in a great measure conquered before the conclusion of this century, partly by the resolution and influence of WILLIAM the First, and his son MAU-RICE, and partly by the exemplary conduct of the

[f] Brandt, loc. cit. book xi. p. 555. 596, 587. 609, 613. Book xiv. p. 785. book xvi. p. 811.

<sup>[</sup>e] See Brandt, Historie der Reformatie in de Nederlande, vol. i. p. 525, 526.—Ceremonies et Cou:umes de tous les Peuples du Monde, tom. iv. p. 20 r.

SECT.III. tachment to the republic on several occasions, SECT.III. and redoubled, instead of diminishing, the precautions that might remove all grounds of suspicion to their advantage, and take from their adversaries every pretext which could render their opposition justifiable. But it was not before the following century, that their liberty and tranquillity, were fixed upon solid foundations, when, by a Confession of Faith, published in the year 1626, they cleared themselves from the imputation of those pernicious and detestable errors that had

been laid to their charge [g].

The English Anahaptists.

XXII. The sect, in England, which rejects the custom of baptizing infants, are not distinguished by the title of Anabaptists, but by that of Baptists. It is, however, probable, that they derive their origin from the German and Dutch Mennonites; and that, in former times, they adopted their doctrine in all its points. That, indeed, is by no means the case at present; for the English Baptists differ, in many things, both from the ancient and modern Mennonites. They are divided into two sects. One of which is distinguished by the denomination of General or Arminian Baptists on account of their opposition to the doctrine of absolute and unconditional decrees; and the other by that of Particular or Calvinistical Baptists, from the striking resemblance of their religious system to that of the Presbytemans, who have CAL-VIN for their chief [b]. The Baptists of this latter sect settled chiefly at London, and in the towns and villages adjacent; and they have departed so far from the tenets of their ancestors, that, at this day,

<sup>[</sup>g] See Herm. Schyn, Plenior Deductio Histor. Mennouit. cap. iv. p. 79.

<sup>[</sup>b] See Whiston's Memoires of his Life and Writings, vol. ii. p. 461.

day, they retain no more of the peculiar doctrines C F N To and institutions of the Mennonites, than the ad-SECT. III. ministration of baptism by immersion, and the re-PARTIL fusal of that sacrament to infants, and those of tender years. And consequently they have none of those scruples relating to oaths, war, and the functions of magistracy, that still remain among even the most rational part of the modern Mennonites. They observe in their congregations the same rules of government, and the same method of worship, that are followed by the Presbyterians, and their community is under the direction of men eminent for their piety and learning [i]. From their Confession of Faith, that was published in the year 1643, it appears plainly, that their religious sentiments were the same then that they are at this day [k].

XXIII. The General Baptists, or, as they are The opinicalled by some, the Antipædobaptists, are dispersed one of the General in great numbers through several counties of Eng-and Partiland, and are, for the most part, persons of mean baptists in condition, and almost totally destitute of learning England. and knowledge. This latter circumstance will appear less surprising, when it is considered, that, like the ancient Mennonites, they profess a contempt of erudition and science. There is much latitude in their system of religious doctrine, which consists in such vague and general principles, as render their communion accessible to Christians of almost all denominations. And, accordingly, they tolerate, in fact, and receive among them, persons of every sect, even Socinians and Arians; nor do they reject any from their communion who profess themselves Christians. and receive the Holy Scriptures as the source of truth.

<sup>[</sup>i] See a German work composed by Ant. William Bohm, under the title of the History of the Reformation in England, p. 151. 473. 536. 1152.

[k] Bibliotheque Britannique, tom. vi. p. 2.

CENT truth, and the rule of faith [1]. They agree with XVI the Particular Baptists in this circumstance, that I hat I they admit to baptism adult persons only, and administer that sacrament by dipping or total immersion; but they differ from them in another respect, even in their repeating the administration of baptism to those who had received it, either in a state of infancy, or by aspersion, instead of dipping; for if the common accounts may be believed, the Particular Baptists do not carry matters so far. The following sentiments, rites, and tenets, are also peculiar to the former: 1. After the manner of the ancient Mennonites, they look upon their sect as the only true Christian church, and consequently shun, with the most scrupulous caution, the communion of all other religious societies. 2. They dip only once, and not three times, as is practised elsewhere, the candidates for baptism, and consider it as a matter of indifference, whether that sacrament be administered in the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, or in that of CHRIST alone. 3. They adopt the doctrine of Menno with respect to the Millenium, or thousand years reign of the

sile of Our author does not certainly mean to include Roman Catholics in this large class, for that his assertion would not be true.

<sup>[1]</sup> This appears evidently from their Confession of Faith, which appeared first in 1660, was republished by Mr Whiston, in the Memoir's of his Life, vol. ii. p. 561. and is drawn up with such latitude, that, with the removal and alteration of a few points \*, it may be adopted by Christians of all denominations +. Mr Whiston, though an Arian, became a member of this Raptist community, which, as he thought, came nearest to the simplicity of the primitive and apostolic age. The famous Mr Linlyn, who was persecuted on account of his Socinian principles, joined himself also to this society, and died in their communion.

of the Saints, Election and Reprobation, which are illustrated entirely on Arminian principles, and consequently cannot be embraced by rigid Calvinests; not to mention the points relating to haptism, which are the distinctive marks of this sect.

the saints with CHRIST upon earth: And, 4. Many C EN T. of them embrace his particular opinion concerning Sect. III. the origin of Christ's body [m]: 5. They look upon PART II. the precept of the apostles, prohibiting the use of blood, and things strangled [n], as a law that was designed to be in force in all ages and periods of the church. 6. They believe that the soul, from the moment that the body dies until its resurrection at the last day, remains in a state of perfect insensibility. 7. They use the ceremony of extreme unction. And to omit matters of a more trifling nature, &. Several of them observe the Jewish as well as the Christian Sabbath [o]. These Baptists have three different classes of ecclesiastical governors, bishops, elders, and deacons; the first of these, among whom there have been several learned men [p], they modestly call messengers [q], as St John is known to have styled that Order, in the book of the Revelations.

AxIV. Before we conclude the History of the The Davida Anabaptists, it may not be improper to mention its or David a very singular and ridiculous sect that was gians. founded by David George, a native of Delft, and a member of that community. This enthusiast, after having laid the foundation of the sect of the Davidists, or David-Georgians, deserted the Anabaptists, and removed to Basil in Switzerland, in the year 1544, where he changed his name, and by the liberality and splendor that attended his Vol. IV.

I i opulence,

[m] To wit, that the body of Jesus was not derived from the substance of the blessed Virgin, but created in her womb by an omnipotent act of the Holy Spirit.

[n] Acts xv. 29.

[o] These accounts of the doctrine of the Baptists are taken from Wall's History of Infant-Baptism; and from the second volume of Whiston's Memoirs of bis Life, p. 465, &c.

[p] See Whiston's Memoirs of his Life, tom. ii. p. 466. as also Crosby's His ory of the English Baptists, published in

four volumes 8 vo, in the year 1728.

[9] St John calls them the angels of the churches; the word angel (in Greek aysides) signifies properly an envoyor messenger.

CENT. opulence, joined to his probity and purity of SECT. III. manners, acquired a very high degree of esteem,
PART II. which he preserved till his death. The lustre of his reputation was, however, but transitory; for, soon after his decease, which happened in the year 1556, his son-in-law, Nicholas Blesdyck, charged him with having maintained the most blasphemous and pestilential errors. The senate of Basil, before whom this accusation was brought, being satisfied with the evidence by which it was supported, pronounced sentence against the deceased heretic, and ordered his body to be dug up and to be publicly burnt. And, indeed, nothing more horridly impious and extravagant can possibly be conceived, than the sentiments and tenets of this fanatic, if they were really such as they have been represented, either by his accusers or his historians. For he is said to have given himself out for the Son of God, the Fountain of divine wisdom, to have denied the existtence of angels, good and evil, of heaven and hell, and to have rejected the doctrine of a future judgment; and he is also charged with having trampled upon all the rules of decency and modesty with the utmost contempt [r]. In all this, however, it is very possible, that there may be much exaggeration. The enthusiast in question, tho' a man of some natural genius, was, nevertheless, totally destitute of learning of every kind, and had something obscure, harsh, and illiberal in his manner of expression, that gave too much occasion

<sup>[1.]</sup> See Nic. Blesdyckii Historia Davidis Georgii à Jacobo Revio edita; as also the life of the same Fanatic, written in the German language, by Stolterforth. Among the modern writers, see Arnold's Kirchen-und Ketzer Historie, tom. i. p. 750. tom. ii. p. 534, & 1183. in which there are several things that tend to clear the character of David. See also Henr. Mori Entbusiasmus Triumphatus, sect. xxxiii. p. 23.—And the documents I have published in relation to this matter, in the History of Servetus, p. 425.

occasion to an unfavourable interpretation of his C E N T. religious tenets. That he had both more sense SECT. III. and more virtue than is generally imagined, ap- PART II. pears manifestly, not only from his numerous writings, but also from the simplicity and candour that were visible in the temper and spirit of the disciples he left behind him, of whom several are yet to be found in Holstein, Friesland, and other countries [s]. He deplored the decline of vital and practical religion, and endeavoured to restore it among his followers; and in this he seemed to imitate the example of the more moderate Anabaptists. But the excessive warmth of an irregular imagination threw him into illusions of the most dangerous and pernicious kind, and seduced him into a persuasion that he was honoured with the gift of divine inspiration, and had celestial visions constantly presented to his mind. Thus was he led to such a high degree of fanaticism, that, rejecting as mean and useless the external services of piety, he reduced religion to contemplation, silence, and a certain frame or habit of soul, which it is equally difficult to define and to understand. The soaring Mystics and the visionary Quakers, may therefore, if they please, give DAVID GEORGE a distinguished rank in their enthusiastical community.

XXV. HENRY NICHOLAS, a Westphalian, one The family of the intimate companions of this fanatic, though of Love, somewhat different from him in the nature of his Henry Nil enthusiasm, and also in point of genius and chacholas racter, founded a sect in Holland, in the year 1555, which he called the Family of Love. The principles of this sect were afterwards propagated in England, and produced no small confusion in both nations. The judgment that has been formed with respect to David Grorge may be applied with truth, at least in a great measure, to his associate

[s] See Jo. Molleri Introduct. in Histor. Chersones. Cimbrica, P. II. p. 116. & Cimbria Literata, tom. i. p. 422. CENT. sociate Nicholas, who, perhaps, would have pre-XVI. SECT III

vented a considerable part of the heavy reproach-PART II. es with which he has been loaded, had he been endowed with a degree of genius, discernment, and knowledge, sufficient to enable him to express , his sentiments with perspicuity and elegance. Be that as it may, the character, temper, and views of this man may be learned from the spirit that reigned in his flock [t]. As to his pretensions, they were, indeed, visionary and chimerical; for he maintained, that he had a commission from heaven, to teach men that the essence of religion consisted in the feelings of divine love; that all other theological tenets, whether they related to objects of faith, or modes of worship, were of no sort of moment; and consequently, that it was a matter of the most perfect indifference, what opinions Christians entertained concerning the divine nature, provided their hearts burned with the pure and sacred flame of piety and love. To this, his main doctrine, Nicholas may have probably added other odd fancies, as always is the case with those innovators, who are endued with a warm and fruitful imagination; to come, however, at a true notion of the opinions of this enthusiast, it will be much wiser to consult his own writings, than to depend entirely upon the accounts and refutations of his adversaries [u].

> [1] See Jo. Hornbeck, Summa Controvers. lib. vi. p. 393. -Arnold, Kirchen-und Ketzer Historie, p. 746.-Bohm's History of the Reformation in England (written in German), book iv. ch. v. p. 541.

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<sup>[</sup>u] The most learned of all the authors who wrote against the Family of Love, was Dr Henry More, in his Grand Explanation of the Mystery of Godliness, &c. book vi. chap. 12-18. George Fox, the founder of the sect of Quakers, inveighed also severely against this seraphic Family, and called them a motley tribe of Fanatics, because they took oaths, danced, sung, and made merry. See Shewell's History of the Quakers, book iii. p. 88, 89. 344.

## CHAP. IV.

## The History of the Socinians.

I. THE Socinians are said to have derived this CENT. denomination from the illustrious family SECT. III. of the Sozzini, which flourished a long time at PARTIL Sienna in Tuscany, and produced several great The denoand eminent men, and among others Lælius and mination FAUSTUS Sozinus, who are commonly supposed to and origin have been the founders of this sect. The for-of this sect. mer was the son of Marianus, a famous lawyer, and was himself a man of uncommon genius and learning; to which he added, as his very enemies are obliged to acknowledge, the lustre of a virtuous life, and of unblemished manners. Being forced to leave his country, in the year 1547, on account of the disgust he had conceived against popery, he travelled through France, England, Holland, Germany, and Poland, in order to examine the religious sentiments of those who had thrown off the yoke of Rome, and thus at length to come at the truth. After this he settled at Zurich, where he died in the year 1562, before he had arrived at the fortieth year of his age [w]. His mild and gentle disposition rendered him averse from whatever had the air of contention and discord. He adopted the Helvetic confession of faith, and professed himself a member of the church of Switzerland; but this did not engage him to conceal entirely the doubts he had formed in relation to certain points of religion, and which he communicated, in effect, by letter, to some learned men, whose judgment he respected, Ii3 and

<sup>[</sup>w] Cloppenburg, Dissertatio de origine et progressu Socimianismi.—Jo. Hornbeck, Summa Controversiarum, p. 563.— Jo. Henr. Hottinger, Hist. Eccles. tom. ix. p. 417.

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CENT and in whose friendship he could confide [x]. His sentiments were indeed propagated, in a more PART IL public manner, after his death; since EAUSTUS, his nephew and his heir, is supposed to have drawn, from the papers he left behind him, that religious system upon which the sect of the Socinians was founded.

The term " Sociaian," bears different cignifications

II. It is, however, to be observed, that this denomination does not always convey the same ideas, since it is susceptible of different significations, and is, in effect, used sometimes in a more strict and proper, and at others in a more improper and extensive sense. For, according to the usual manner of speaking, all are termed Socinians, whose sentiments bear a certain affinity to the system of Socinus; and they are more especially ranked in that class, who either boldly deny, or artfully explain away, the doctrines that assert the Divine Nature of Christ, and a Trinity of persons in the Godhead. But, in a strict and proper sense, they only are deemed the members of this sect, who embrace wholly, or with a few exceptions, the form of theological doctrine, which FAUSTUS SOCINUS either drew up himself or received from his uncle, and delivered to the Unitarian brethren, or Socinians, in Poland and Transylvania [y].

III. The origin of Socinianism may be traced to The origin of Socialian-the earliest period of the Reformation. For scarcely

> [x] Zanchius, Praf. ad Libr. de tribus Elobim.—Beza, Epist. Volum. ep. 1xxxi. p. 167. Certain writings are attributed to him by Sandius, in his Bibliotheca Anturinuar. p. 18. but it is very doubtful whether he was the real author of them, or

> [y] We have, hitherto, no complete or accurate history either of the sect called Socinians, or of Lælius and Faustus Socinus, its founders; nor any satisfactory account of those who laboured principally with them, and, after them, in giving a permanent and stable form to this community. For the

accuunts

ly had that happy revolution in the state of religion CENT. taken place, when a set of men, fond of extremes, SECT. III. and consequently disposed to look upon as erro- PART IL neous whatever had hitherto been taught and professed in the church of Rome, began to undermine the doctrine of Christ's Divinity, and the other truths that are connected with it, and proposed reducing the whole of religion to practical piety and virtue. The efforts of these men were opposed with united zeal and vigilance by the Romish, Reformed, and Lutheran churches; and their designs were so far disconcerted, as to prevent their forming themselves and their followers into a regular and permanent sect. So early as the year 1524, the divinity of Christ was openly denied by Lewis Hetzer, one of the wandering and fanatical Anabaptists, who, about three years afterwards, was put to death at Constance [2]. There were not wanting among the first Anabaptists, several persons who entertained the opinions of HETZER; though it would be manifestly unfair li4

accounts we have of the Socinians, and their principal doctors, from Hornbeck (1), Calovius (2), Cloppenburg (3), Sandius (4), Lubieniecius (5), and Lauterbach (6), are far from being proper to satisfy the curiosity of those, who desire something more than a vague and superficial knowledge of this matter. The history of Socinianism, that was published at Paris by Lami in the year 1723, is a wretched compilation from the most common-place writers on that subject; it is also full of errors, and is loaded with a variety of matters that have no sort of relation to the history of Socinus, or to the doctrine he taught. The very learned and laborious La Croze promised in his Dissertations Historiques, tom. i. p. 142. a complete History of Socinianism, from its origin to the present times, but did not fulfil this interesting engagement.

[z] Sandii Bibliotheca Anti-Trinitar.—Jo. Bapt. Ottius, Annal. Anabaptist. p. 50 .- Breitingeri Museum Helveticum,

tom. v. p. 39 L. tom. vi. p. 100. 479.

(1) In his Socinianism. Confutat. vol. i.—(2) In his Opera Anti-Sociniani.——(3) In his Dissertat. de origine et progressu Socinianismi, tem. ii. opp.—(4) In his Bibliotheca Anti-Trinitariorum.——(5) In his Historia Reformationis Polonicz. (6) In his Ariano-Socinismus, published in German at Francfort in the year 1725.

C E N T. fair to lay these opinions to the charge of the whole SECT. III. community. But it was not only from that quarter PART II. thaterroneous opinions were propagated in relation to the points already mentioned; others seemed to have been seized with the contagion, and it manifested itself from day to day in several countries. John Campanus, a native of Juliers, disseminated at Wittemberg and other places, various tenets of an heretical aspect; and taught, among other things, that the Son was inferior to the Father, and that the Holy Gbost was not the title of a divine person, but a denomination used to denote the nature of the Futher and of the Son; and thus did this innovator revive, in a great measure, the errors of the ancient Arians [a]. A doctrine of a similar kind was propagated, in the year 1530, in Switzerland, Augsburgb, and among the Grisons, by a person, whose name was Claudius, who, by his opposition to the doctrine of CHRIST's divinity, excited no small commotions in these countries [b]. But none of these new teachers were so far encouraged by the number of their followers, or the indulgence of their adversaries, as to be in a condition to form a regular sect,

Michael bervetus.

IV. The attempts of Michael Servede [c], or Servetus, a Spanish physician, were much more

[a] See the Dissertation de Job. Campano, Anti-Trinitario, in the Amanuates Lucraria of the very learned Schelhornius, tom. xi. p. 1—92.

[b] See Schelhornii Dissert. Epistol. de Mino Celso Senensi Claudio item Allobrage, homine Fanatico et SS. Trinitatis boste, Ulmæ 1748, in 4to .- Jac. Breitingeri Museum Helvetic. tom. vii. p. 667.—Jo. Hallerus, Epistol. in Jo. Conrad. Fueslin,

Centuria Epistolar. Viror. Eruditor. p. 140.

[c] By taking away the last syllable of this name (I mean the Spanish termination de) there remains Serve, which, by placing differently the letters that compose it, makes Reves. Servetus assumed this latter name in the title-pages of all bis books. He also called himself sometimes Michael Villanovanus, or Villanovanus alone, after the place of his nativity, omitting the name of his family.

more alarming to those who had the cause of true C E N T. religion at heart, than the feeble and impotent Szer. III. efforts of the innovators now mentioned. This PART II. man, who has made such a noise in the world, was born at Villa Nueva, in the kingdom of Arragon, distinguished himself, by the superiority of his genius, and had made a considerable progress in various branches of science. In the years 1531 and 1532, he published, in Latin, his Seven books concerning the errors that are contained in the doctrine of the Trinity, and his Two Dialogues on the same subject, in which he attacked, in the most audacious manner, the sentiments adopted by far the greatest part of the Christian church, in relation to the Divine Nature, and a Trinity of persons in the Godhead. Some years after this he travelled into France, and, after a variety of adventures, settled at Vienne in Dauphine, where he applied himself, with success, to the practice of physic. It was here, that, letting loose the reins of his warm and irregular imagination, he invented that strange system of theology, which was printed, in a clandestine manner, in the year 1553, under the title of Christianity restored. The man seemed to be seized with a passion for reforming (in his way), and many things concurred to favour his designs, such as the fire of his genius, the extent of his learning, the power of his eloquence, the strength of his resolution, the obstinacy of his temper, and an external appearance, at least, of piety, that rendered all the rest doubly engaging all this, the protection and friendship of many persons of weight, in France, Germany, and Italy, which Serverus had obtained by his talents and abilities both natural and acquired; and it will appear that few innovators have set out with a better prospect of success. But, notwithstanding their signal advantages, all his views were totally disappointed by the vigilance and severity of CALVIN,

CENT. CALVIN, who, when SERVETUS had escaped from SECT. III. his prison at Vienne, and was passing through PART II. Switzerland, in order to seek refuge in Italy, caused him to be apprehended at Geneva, in the year 1553, and had an accusation of blasphemy brought against him before the council [d]. The issue of this accusation was fatal to Serverus, who adhering resolutely to the opinions he had embraced, was, by a public sentence of the court, declared an obstinate heretic, and, in consequence thereof, condemned to the flames. For it is observable, that, at this time, the ancient laws that had been enacted against heretics by the emperor Frederic II. and had been so frequently renewed after his reign, were still in vigour at Geneva. It must, however, be acknowledged, that this learned and ingenious sufferer was worthy of a better fate; though it is certain, on the other hand, that his faults were neither few nor trivial; since it is well known, that his excessive arrogance was accompanied with a malignant and contentious spirit, an invincible obstinacy of temper, and a considerable portion of fanaticism [e]. V. The

[d] This accusation was brought against Servetus by a person, who lived in Calvin's family as a servant; and this circumstance displeased many.

ample and curious history of Scrvetus, composed by him in the German language, of which the first edition was published at Helmstadt, in 4to, in the year 1748, and the second, with considerable additions, at the same place, the year following. Those who are not acquainted with the German language, will find a full account of this singular man, and of his extraordinary history, in a Latin dissertation, composed under the inspection of Dr Mosheim, and published at Helmstadt under the following title: Historia Michaelis Serveti, quam, Præside Jo. Laur. Mosheimeo, Albate, &c. placido Doctorum examini publice exponit HENRICUS AB ALLWAERDEN. There is an accurate history of this unhappy man in the first volume of the work, entitled, Memoirs of Literature, containing a Weekly Account of the State of Learning, both at home and abroad.

V. The religious system that Serverus had CENT. struck out, of a wild and irregular fancy, was, in-SECT. III. deed, singular in the highest degree. The great-PART II est part of it was a necessary consequence of his The docpeculiar notions concerning the universe, the na-trine of Secture of God, and the nature of things, which were vertue equally strange and chimerical. Thus it is difficult to unfold, in a few words, the doctrine of this unhappy man; nor, indeed, would any detail render it intelligible in all its branches. He took it into his head that the true and genuine doctrine of Christ had been entirely lost, even before the council of Nice; and he was, moreover, of opinion, that it had never been delivered with a sufficient degree of precision and perspicuity in any period of the church. To these extravagant assertions he added another still more so, even that he himself had received a commission from above to reveal anew this divine doctrine, and to explain it to mankind. His notions with respect to the Supreme Being, and a Trinity of persons in the Godhead, were obscure and chimerical beyond all measure, and amounted in general to the follow-

abroad. This was composed by Monsieur de la Roche, and was afterwards augmented by him, and translated into French in his Bibliotheque Angloise, tom. ii. part I. article vii. p. 76.— There is also an account of Servetus given by Mackenzie, in the first volume of his Lives and characters of the most eminent Writers of the Scots nation, which was published at Edinburgh in the year 1708. To these we may add An Impartial History of Servetus, &c. written by an anonymous author, and published at London in 1724.

It is impossible to justify the conduct of Calvin in the case of Servetus, whose death will be an indelible reproach upon the character of that great and eminent Reformer. The only thing that can be alleged, not to efface, but to diminish his crime, is, that it was no easy matter for him to divest himself at once of that persecuting spirit, which had been so long nourished and strengthened by the popish religion in which he was educated. It was a remaining portion of the spirit of popery in the breast of Calvin that kindled his unchristian zeal against the wretched Servetus.

CENT.ing propositions: That the Deity, before the crea-XVI. "tion of the world, had produced within himself PART II. " two personal representations, or manners of exist-" ence [f], which were to be the medium of inter-"course between him and mortals, and by whom " consequently, he was to reveal his will, and to " display his mercy and beneficence to the chil-" dren of men; that these two representatives were "the Word and the Holy Ghast; that the former " was united to the man Christ, who was born of " the Virgin Mary by an omnipotent act of the "divine will; and that, on this account, CHRIST " might be properly called God; that the Holy "Spirit directed the course, and animated the "whole system of nature; and more especially "produced in the minds of men wise councils, " virtuous propensities, and divine feelings; and, " finally, that these two Representations were to " cease after the destruction of this terrestrial " globe, and to be absorbed into the substance of " the Deity, from whence they had been formed." This is, at least, a general sketch of the doctrine of Serverus, who, however, did not always explain his system in the same manner, nor take any pains to avoid inconsistencies and contradictions; and who frequently expressed himself in such ambiguous terms, that it is extremely difficult to learn from them his true sentiments. His system of morality agreed in many circumstances with that of the Anabaptists; whom he also imitated in censuring, with the utmost severity, the custom of Infant-Baptism.

Other Anti-Trinitarians. VI. The pompous plans of Reformation, that had been formed by Serverus, were not only disconcerted, but even fell into oblivion, after the death

vetus also called *economies*, dispensations, dispositions, &c. for be often changed his terms in unfolding his visionary system.

cleath of their author. He was, indeed, according C E N T. to vulgar report, supposed to have left behind sect III. him a considerable number of disciples; and we PART II. find in the writings of the doctors of this century, many complaints and apprehensions that seem to confirm this supposition, and would persuade us, that Serverus had really founded a sect; yet, when this matter is attentively examined, there will appear just reason to doubt, whether this man left behind him any one person that might properly be called his true disciple. For those who were denominated Servetians by the theological writers of this century, not only differed from SERVETUS in many points of doctrine; but also varied widely from him in his doctrine of the Trinity, which was the peculiar and distinguishing point of his theological system. VALENTINE GENTILIS, a Neapolitan, who suffered death at Bern, in the year 1566, adopted the Arian hypothesis, and not that of Serverus, as many writers have imagined; for his only error consisted in this, that he considered the Son, and the Holy Gbost, as subordinate to the Father [8]. Nearly allied to this, was the doctrine of MATTHEW GRIBALDI, a lawyer, whom a timely death, in the year 1566, saved from the severity of an ecclesiastical tribunal, that was ready to pronounce sentence against him on account of his errors; for he supposed the divine nature divided into three eternal spirits, which were distinguished from each other, not only by number, but also by subordination [b]. It is not so easy to determine the particular

[b] Sandii Biblioth. Inti-Trinit. p. 17.—Lamy, loc. cit. part II. ch. vii. p. 257.—Spon, loc. cit. tom. ii. p. 85. not.—Halerus, in Museo Tigarino, tom. ii. p. 114.

<sup>[</sup>g] Soe Bayle's Dictionary, at the article Gentilis.—Spon. Hist. de Geneve, livr. iii. tom. ii. p. 80.—Sandii Biblioth. Anti-Trinit. p. 26.—Lamy, Histoire du Socinianisme, part II. ch. vi. p. 251.—Fuesl. Reformations Beytrage, tom. v. p. 381.

CENT. ticular charge that was brought against ALCIAT, SECT. III.

native of Piedmont, and Sylvester Tellius, who PART II. were banished from the city and territory of Geneva, in the year 1559; nor do we know, with any degree of certainty, the errors that were embraced by PARUTA, LEONARDI, and others [i], who were ranked among the followers of Serverus. It is, however, more than probable, that none of the persons now mentioned were the disciples of Serverus, or adopted the hypothesis of that visionary innovator. The same thing may be affirmed with respect to Gonesius, who is said to have embraced the doctrine of that unhappy man, and to have introduced it into Poland [k]; for, though he maintained some opinions that really resembled it in some of its points; yet his manner of explaining the mystery of the Trinity was totally different from that of Serverus.

Erroneous the origin of Socinianime

VII. It is evident that none of the persons, now accounts of mentioned, professed that form or system of theological

> [i] For an account of these, and other persons of the same class, see Sandius, Lamy, and also Lubieniecius, his Historia Reformat. Polonicæ, lib. ii. cap. v. p. 96 .- There is a particular and ample account of Alciat given by Bayle, in the first volume of his Dictionary; see also Spon, loc. cit. tom. ii. p. **85,86.**

> [k] This is confirmed upon the authority of Wissowatius and Lubieniecius; but the very words of the latter will be sufficient to shew us upon what grounds. These words (Hist. Reformat. Polon. cap. vi. p. 111.) are as follows: " Is serveti sententiam de præ-eminentia patris in patriam attulit, eamque non dissimulavit," i. e. Gonesius introduced into Poland the opinion embraced by Servetus in relation to the pre-eminence of the Father, and was by no means studious to conceal it. Who now does not see, that, if it was the pre-eminence of the Father that Gonesius maintained, he must have differed considerably from Servetus, whose doctrine removed all real distinction in the divine nature? The reader will do well to consult Sandius (loc. cit. p. 40.) concerning the sentiments of Gonesius; since it is from this writer, that Lamy has borrowed the greatest part of what he has advanced in his Histoire de Socinianisme, 20m. ii. chap. x. p. 278.

logical doctrine, that is properly called Socinian-CENT. ism, the origin of which is, by the writers of that XVI. sect, dated from the year 1546, and placed in Italy. PART IL These writers tell us, that, in this very year, above forty persons eminently distinguished by their learning and genius, and still more by their generous zeal for truth, held secret assemblies, at different times, in the territory of Venice, and particularly at Vicenza, in which they deliberated concerning a general reformation of the received systems of religion, and, in a more especial manner, undertook to refute the peculiar doctrines that were afterwards publicly rejected by the Socinians. They tell us further, that the principal members of this clandestine society, were LELIus, Socinus, Alciat, Ochinus, Paruta, and Gen-TILIS; that their design was divulged, and their meetings discovered, by the temerity and imprudence of some of their associates; that two of them were apprehended and put to death; while the rest, being dispersed, sought a refuge in Switzerland, Germany, Moravia, and other countries, and that Socious, after having wandered up and down in several parts of Europe, went into Poland, first in the year 1551, and afterwards in 1558, and there sowed the seeds of his doctrine, which, in process of time, grew apace, and produced a rich and abundant harvest [1]. Such is the

[1] See the Bibliotheca Anti-Trinit. p. 18 & 25. of Sandius, who mentions some writings that are supposed to have been published by the clandestine society of pretended Reformers at Venice and Vicenza; though the truth of this supposition is extremely dubious;—Andr. Wissowatii Narratio quomodo in Polonia Reformati ab Unitariis separati sunt, which is subjoined to the Biblioth. of Sandius, p. 209, 210.—The reader may likewise consult Lubieniecius, Histor. Reformat. Polon. lib. ii. cap. i. p. 38. who intimates, that he took this account of the origin of Socinianism from the manuscript Commentaria of Budzinus, and his Life of Lælius Socinus. See also Sam. Przipcovius, in Vita Socini.

The account of the origin of Socinianism, that XVI. is generally given by the writers of that sect. To assert that it is, in every circumstance, fictitious and talse, would perhaps be going too far; but, on the other hand, it is easy to demonstrate that the system of religion, commonly called Sociainanism, was neither invented nor drawn up in those meetings at Venice, and Vicenza, that have now been mentioned [m].

VIII. While,

[m] See Gustav. Georg. Zeltneri Historia Crypto-Socinianismi Altor, ni, cap. ii. sect. xli. p. 321. note. This writer seems to think that the inquiries that have hitherto been made into this affair are by no means satisfactory; and he therefore wishes that some men of learning, equal to the task, would examine the subject anew.—This, indeed, were much to be wished. In the mean time, I shall venture to offer a few observations, which may perhaps, contribute to cast some light upon this matter. That there was, in reality, such a society as is mentioned in the text, is far from being improbable. Many circumstances and relations prove sufficiently, that immediately after the Reformation had taken place in Germany, secret assemblies were held, and measures proposed, in several provinces that were still under the jurisdiction of Rome, with a view to combat the errors and superstition of the times. It is also, in a more especial manner, probable, that the territory of Venice was the scene of these deliberations; since it is well known, that a great number of the Venetians at this time, though they had no personal attachment to Luther, approved, nevertheless, of his design of reforming the corrupt state of religion, and wished well to every attempt that was made to restore Christianity to its native and primitive simplicity. It is farther highly credible, that these assemblies were interrupted and dispersed by the vigilance of the papal emissaries, that some of their members were apprehended and put to death, and that the rest saved themselves by flight. All this is probable enough; but it is extremely improbable, nay utterly incredible, that all the persons, who are said to have been present at these assemblies, were really so. And I therefore adopt willingly the opinion of those who affirm, that many persons, who, in after-times, distinguished themselves from the multitude by opposing the doctrine of the Trinity in Unity, were considered as members of the Venetian society, by ignorant writers, who looked upon that society as the source and nursery of the whole Unitarian sect. It is certain, for instance, that Ochinus is erroneously placed among the mera-

VIII. While, therefore, we reject this inaccu-CENT. rate account of the matter under consideration, it SECT. III. 18 PART II.,

bers of the famous society now mentioned; for, not to insist The real upon the circumstance, that it is not sufficiently clear whether origin of he was really a Socinian or not, it appears undeniably, from Socinianthe Annales Capucinorum of BOVERHUS, as well as from other ism. unquestionable testimonies, that he left Italy so early as the year 1543, and went from thence to Geneva. See a singular book, entitled, La Guerre Serapbique, ou l'Histoire des perils qu'a courus la Barbe des Capuchins, livr. iii. p. 191. 216 -What I have said of Ochinus may be confidently affirmed with respect to Lælius Socinus, who, though reported to have been at the head of the society now under consideration, was certainly never present at any of its meetings. can we suppose that a young man, only one-and-twenty years old, would leave the place of his nativity, repair to Venice or Vicenza, and that without any other view than the pleasure of disputing freely on certain points of religion #? Or how could it happen, that a youth of such unexperienced years should acquire such a high degree of influence and authority, as to obtain the first rank, and the principal direction, in an assembly composed of so many eminently learned and ingenious men? Besides; from the Life of Lælius, which is still extant, and from other testimonies of good authority, it is easy to shew, that it was the desire of improvement, and the hope of being aided, in his inquiries after truth, by the conversation of learned men in foreign nations, that induced him to leave Italy, and not the apprehension of persecution and death, as some have imagined. It is also certain, that he returned into his native country afterwards, and, in the year 1551, remained some time at Sienna, while his father lived at Bologna. See his letter to Bullinger, in the Museum Helveticum, tom. v. p. 489. Now surely it cannot easily be imagined, that a man in his senses would return to a country from whence, but a few years before, he had been obliged to fly, in order to avoid the terrors of a babarous inquisition and a violent death. .

But, waving this question for a moment, let us suppose all the accounts, we have from the Socinians, concerning this famous assembly of Venice and Vicenza, and the members of which it was composed, to be true and exact; yet it remains to be proved, that the Socinian system of doctrine was invented and drawn up in that assembly. This the Socinian writers maintain; and this, as the case appears to me, may be safely

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denied.

Is such a supposition really so absurd? Is not a spirit of enthusiasm, or even an uncommon degree of zeal, adequate to the production of such an effect?

SICT. III. PART II. Socinian doctrine seem easy to be traced out by such as are acquainted with the history of the church during this century. There were certain sects and doctors, against whom the zeal, vigil-

sects and doctors, against whom the zeal, vigilance and severity of Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists, were united, and, in opposing whose settlement and progress, these three communions,

forgetting their dissensions, joined their most vigorous counsels and endeavours. The objects of

their

denied. For the Socinian doctrine is undoubtedly of much later date than this assembly; it also passed through different hands, and was, during many years, reviewed and corrected by men of learning and genius, and thus underwent various changes and improvements before it was formed into a regular, permanent, and connected system. To be convinced of this, it will be sufficient to cast an eye upon the opinions, doctrines, and reasonings, of several of the members of the famous society, so often mentioned; which vary in such a striking manner, as shew manifestly that this society had no fixed views, nor had ever agreed upon any consistent form of doctrine. We learn, morcover, from many circumstances in the life and transactions of Lælius Sociaus, that this man had not, when he left Italy, laid the plan of a regular system of religion; and it is well known, that, for many years afterwards, his time was spent in doubting, inquiring, and disputing; and that his ideas of religious matters were extremely fluctuating and un-So that it seems probable to me, that the man died in this state of hesitation and uncertainty, before he had reduced his notions to any consistent form. As to Gribaldi and Alciat, who have been already mentioned, it is manifest that they inclined towards the Arian system, and did not entertain such low ideas of the person and dignity of Jesus Christ, as those that are adopted among the Socinians. From all this it appears abundantly evident, that these Italian Reformers, if their famous society ever existed in reality (which I admit here as a probable supposition rather than as a fact sufficiently attested) were dispersed and obliged to seek their safety in a voluntary exile, before they had agreed about any regular system of religious doctrine. So that this account of the origin of Socinianism is rather imaginary than real, though it has been inconsiderately adopted by many writers. Fueslin has alleged several arguments against it in his German work, ensitled Reformations Beytragen, tom. iii. p. 327.

their common aversion, were the Anabaptists, and C E N T. those who denied the Divinity of Christ, and XVI a Trinity of Persons in the Godhead. To avoid PART IL. the unhappy consequences of such a formidable opposition, great numbers of both classes retired into Poland, from this persuasion, that in a country whose inhabitants were passionately fond of freedom, religious liberty could not fail to find a refuge. However, on their first arrival, they proceeded with circumspection and prudence, and explained their sentiments with much caution and a certain mixture of disguise, not knowing surely what might happen, nor how far their opinions would be treated with indulgence. they lived in peace and quiet during several years, mixed with the Lutherans and Calvinists, who had already obtained a solid settlement in Poland, and who admitted them into their communion, and even into the assemblies where their public deliberations were held. They were not, however, long satisfied with this state of constraint, notwithstanding the privileges with which it was attended; but, having insinuated themselves into the friendship of several noble and opulent families, they began to act with more spirit, and even to declare in an open manner, their opposition to certain doctrines that were generally received among Christians. Hence arose violent contests between them and the Swiss, or Reformed churches, with which they had been principally connected. These dissensions drew the attention of the government, and occasioned, in the year 1565, a resolution of the diet of Petrikow, ordering the innovators to separate themselves from the churches already mentioned, and to form a distinct congregation or sect [n]. These founders

<sup>[</sup>n] Lamy, Histoire du Socinianisme, part I. chap. vi. &c. p. 16.—Stoinii Epitome Originis Unitariorum in Polonia, acud K k 2 Sandium

CENT. founders of the Socinian church were commonly SECT III. called Pinczovians, from the town in which the PART II. heads of their sect resided. Hitherto, indeed, they had not carried matters so far as they did afterwards; for they professed chiefly the Arian doctrine concerning the divine nature, maintaining that the Son and the Holy Ghost were two distinct natures, begotten by God the Father, and subordinate to him [0].

The progress of Soeinianism.

IX. The Unitarians, being thus separated from the other religious societies in Poland, had many difficulties to encounter, both of an internal and external kind. From without, they were threatened with a formidable prospect arising from the united efforts of Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists, to crush their infant sect. From within, they dreaded the effects of intestine discord, which portended the ruin of their community before it could arrive at any measure of stability or consistence. This latter apprehension was too well grounded; for, as yet, they had agreed upon no regular system of principles, which might serve as a centre and bond of union. Some of them chose to persevere in the doctrine of the Arians, and

Sandium, p. 183.—Georg. Schomanni Testamentum, apud eundem, p. 194.—Andr. Wissowatius de Separatione Univer. a Reformatis, ibid. p. 211, 212.—Lubieniecius, Histor. Reformat. Polonica, lib. ii. cap. vi. p. 111. cap. viii. p. 144-

lib. iii. cap. i. p. 158.

[o] This will appear abundantly evident to all such as consult, with a proper degree of attention, the writers mentioned in the preceding note. It is unquestionably certain, that all those, who then called themselves Unitarian Brethren, did not entertain the same sentiments concerning the Divine Nature. Some of the most eminent doctors of that sect adopted the notions relating to the person and dignity of Christ, that were in after-times, peculiar to the Socinians; the greatest part of them, however, embraced the Arian system, and affirmed, that our blessed Saviour was created before the formation of the world, by God the Father, to whom he was much inferior, nevertheless, in dignity and perfection.

and to proceed no further; and these were called C E N T. Farnovians [p]. Others, more adventurous, went XVI. much greater lengths, and attributed to CHRIST PART II. almost no other rank or dignity than those of a divine messenger, and of a true prophet. A third class, distinguished by the denomination of Budneians [q], went still further; declaring that Jesus Christ was born in an ordinary way, according to the general law of nature, and that, consequently, he was no proper object of divine worship or adoration [r]. There was also among these people several fanatics, who were desirous of introducing into the society the discipline of enthusiastic Anabaptists; such as a community of goods, an equality of ranks, and other absurdities of the same nature [s]. Such were the disagreeable and perilous circumstances in which the Unitarians were placed, during the infancy of their sect, and which no doubt, rendered their situation extremely critical and perplexing. But they were happily extricated out of these difficulties by the dexterity and resolution of certain of their doctors, whose efforts were crowned with singular success, on account of the credit and influence they had obtained in Poland. Unitarian doctors suppressed in a little time, the factions that threatened the ruin of their community, erected flourishin geongregations at Cracow, Lublin, Pinczow, Luck, Smila [t] (a town belong-Kk3 ing

[r] Vita Andr. Wissowatii in Sandii Biblioth. Anti-Trin. p. 226.—As also Sandius in Simone Budnæo, p. 54.

<sup>[</sup>p] For a more particular account of the Farnovians, see sect. xxii. of this chapter.

<sup>[</sup>q] See the part of this chapter referred to in the preceding note.

<sup>[</sup>s] Lubieniecii Hist. Reform. Polon. lib. iii. cap. xii. p. 240. [1] Mart. Adelt, Historia Ariunismi Smigliensis, Ged. 1741, in 8vo.

other places both in *Poland* and *Lithuania*, and obtained the privilege of printing their productions, and those of their brethren, without molestation or restraint [w]. All these advantages were crowned by a signal mark of liberality and munificence, they received from Jo. Sienienius, palatine of *Podolia*, who gave them a settlement in the city of *Racow*, which he had himself built, in the

IF [u] This Dudith, who was certainly one of the most learned and eminent men of the sixteenth century, was born at Buda, in the year 1533; and after having studied in the most famous universities, and travelled through almost all the countries of Europe, was named to the bishoprick of Tinia by the emperor Ferdinand, and made privy counsellor to that prince. He had, by the force of his genius, and the study of the ancient orators, acquired such a masterly and irresistible eloquence, that in all public deliberations he carried every thing before him. In the council, where he was sent in the name of the emperor and of the Hungarian clergy, he spoke with such energy against several abuses of the church of Rome, and particularly against the celibacy of the clergy, that the pope, being informed thereof by his legates, solicited the emperor to recal him. nand complied; but having heard Dudith's report of what passed in that famous council, he approved of his conduct, and rewarded him with the bishoprick of Chonat. He afterwards married a maid of honour of the queen of Hungary, and resigned his bishoprick; the emperor, however, still continued his friend and protector. The papal excommunication was levelled at his head, but he treated it with contempt. Tired of the fopperies and superstitions of the church of Rome, he retired to Cracow, where he embraced the protestant religion publicly, after having been for a good while its secret friend. It is said that he shewed some inclination towards the Socinian system. Some of his friends deny this; others confess it, but maintain, that he afterwards changed his sentiments in that respect. He was well acquainted with several branches of philosophy and the mathematics, with the sciences of physic, history, theology, and the civil law. He was such an enthusiastical admirer of Cicero, that he copied over three times, with his own hand, the whole works of that immortal author. He had something majestic in his figure, and in the air of his countenance. His life was regular and virtuous, his manners elegant and easy, and his benevolence warm and extensive.

[w] Sandii Bibliotheca Anti-Trin. p. 201.

year 1569, in the district of Sendomir [x]. This c EN T. extraordinary favour was peculiarly adapted to XVI. better the state of the Unitarians, who were, hi- Sect. III. therto, dispersed far and wide in the midst of their enemies. And accordingly they now looked upon their religious establishment as permanent and stable, and presumed so far upon their good fortune, as to declare Racow the centre of their community, where their distant and dispersed members might unite their counsels, and hold their deliberations.

X. When they saw their affairs in this promi-A summary sing situation, the first thing that employed the at-view of the tention and zeal of their doctors and spiritual they prorulers, was a translation of the Bible into the Po-fessed. lish language, which was accordingly published in the year 1572. They had, indeed, before this, a Polish version of the sacred writings, which they had composed, jointly with the Helvetic doctors, in the year 1565, while they lived in communion with that church. But after the breach of that communion, and the order they had received to separate themselves from the Reformed church, this Version lost its credit among them, as it did not seem proper to answer their views [y]. After they had finished their new Version, they drew up a summary of their religious doctrine, which was published at Cracow, in the year 1575, under the title of Catechism or Confession of the Unitarians [z]. The system of re-Kk4 ligion

[x] Sandius, loc. citat. p. 201.—Lubieniecius, loc. cit. p.

<sup>[</sup>y] See a German work of Ringeltaube, entitled Von den Poblnischen Bibeln, p. 90. 113. 142. in which there is a further account of the Polish interpretations of the Bible composed by Socinian authors.

<sup>[2]</sup> From this little performance, and indeed from it alone, we may learn with certainty the true state of the Unitarian re-Figion before Faustus Socinus; and, nevertheless, I do not find

SECT. III. markable for its simplicity, and is neither loaded PART II. with

that it has been so such as once quoted, or even mentioned by any of the Socinian writers, by any historians who have given an account of their sect, nor yet by any of the divines that have drawn the pen of controversy against their religious system. I am almost inclined to believe, that the Socinians (when in process of time they had gained ground, acquired more dexterity in the management of their affairs, and drawn up a new, specious, and artful summary of their doctrine) were prudent enough to desire that this primitive catechism should disappear, that it might not furnish their adversaries with an occasion of accusing them of inconstancy in abandoning the tenets of their ancestors, nor excite factions and divisions among themselves, by inducing any of their people to complain that they had deviated from the ancient simplicity of their first founders. These reasons, very probably, engaged the Socinian doctors to buy up all the copies they could find, of this original Confession, or case techism, with a view to bury it in oblivion. It will not, therefore, be improper to give here some account of the form and matter of this first Socinian creed, which contained the doctrine of that sect before the Racovian Catechism was composed. This account will throw new light upon a period and branch of ecclesiastical History that are highly interesting. The original Catechism, now under consideration, which is extremely rare, has the following title prefixed to it: "Cathechism, or Confession of faith of the Congregation assembled in Poland, in the name of Jesus Christ our Lord, who was crucified and raised from the dead-Deuter. vi. Hear, O Israel, the Lord our God is one God-John viii. 54. It is my Father-of whom ye say, that he is your God. Printed by Alexander Turobinus, born in the year of Christ, the Son of God, 1574," in 12mo, (1). We find, by a passage at the end of the Preface, that this curious Catechism was printed at Cracow, for it is said to have been published in that city, in the year 1574, after the birth of Now it is known that the Unitarians had, at that time, a printing-house at Cracow, which was, soon after, removed to Racow. Alexander Turobinus, who is said to have been the printer of this little production, is mentioned by Sandius (in his Biblioth. Anti-Trin. p. 51.) under the denomination of Turo-

binczyck,

(1) The original title runs thus: "Catechesis et Confessio fidei cœtus per
Poloniam congregati in nomine Jesu Christi, Domine nostri crucifixi et resuscitati, Deut. vi. Audi. Israel, Dominus Deus noster Deus unus est, Johannis viii. dicit Jesus: Quem vos dicitis vestrum esse Deum, est pater meta. Typis Alexandri Turobini, anno nati Jesu Christi, filii Dei, 1574." in
12mo.

with scholastic terms nor subtile discussions; but C E N T. it nevertheless breathes, in several places, the SAGT. III. spirit PART II.

binczyck, which he undoubtedly derived from Turobin, a town in the Palatinate of Chelm, in Little, or Red Russia, which was the place of his nativity. The author of this Catechism was the famous George Schoman, as has been evidently proved from a piece entitled, Schomanni Testamentum (2), and other circumstances, by Jo. Adam Mullerus, in his Dissert. De Unitariorum Catachesi et Confessione omnium (3). The Preface, which is composed in the name of the whole congregation, begins with the following salutation: "To all those who thirst after eternal salvation, the little and afflicted flock in Poland, which is baptized in the name of Jesus of Nazareth, sendeth greeting: praying most earnestly that grace and peace may be shed upon them by the one supreme God and Father, through his only begotten Son, our Lord Jesus Christ, who was crucified" (4). After this general salutation, the Prefacers give an account of the reasons that engaged them to compose and publish this Confession. The principal of these reasons was, the reproaches and aspersions that were cast upon the Anabaptists, in several places; from which we learn, that, at this time, the denomination of Anabaptists was given to those, who, in after times, were called Socioians. The rest of this Preface is employed in beseeching the reader to be firmly persuaded, that the designs of the congregation are pious and upright, to read with attention, that he may judge with discernment, and "abandoning the doctrine of Babylon, and the conduct and conversation of Sodom, to take refuge in the ark of Noah," i. e. among the Unitarian Brethren.

In the beginning of the Catechism itself, the whole doctrine of Christianity is reduced to six points. The first relates to the Nature of God, and his son Jesus Christ; the second to Justification; the third to Discipline; the fourth to Prayer; the fifth to Baptism; and the sixth to the Lord's Supper. These six points are explained at length, in the following manner: Each point is defined and unfolded, in general terms, in one question and answer, and is afterwards subdivided into its several branches in various questions and answers, in which its different parts are illustrated, and confirmed by texts of Scripture.

From

(3) The Dissertation of Mollerus is to be found in a collection of pieces published by Bartholomæus under the following title: "Fortge-ezten nutz-lichen Ammerckungen von allerhand Materien," part. xxi. p. 758.

<sup>(2)</sup> This testament is published by Sandius in his Bibliotheca Anti-Trin.

<sup>(4)</sup> Omnibus salutem æternam fitientibus, gratiam ac pacem ab uno illo altissimo Deo patre, per unigenitum ejus filium, Dominum nostrum, Jesum, Christum crucifixum, ex animo precatur coetus exiguus et afflictus per Poloniam, in nomine ejusdem Jesu Christi Nazareni baptizatus.

C E N T. spirit of Socinianism, and that even in those parts XVI.

SECT. III. of it which its authors look upon as most important Part II.

ant

From this it appears, at first sight, that the primitive state of Socinianism was a state of real infancy and weakness, that its doctors were, by no means distinguished by the depth or accuracy of their theological knowledge, and that they instructed their flock in a superficial manner, by giving them only some vague notions of certain leading doctrines and precepts of religion. In their definition of the Nature of God, with which this Catechism begins, the authors discover immediately their sentiments concerning Jesus Christ, by declaring that he together with all other things, is subject to the Supreme Creator of the universe. may also be observed, as a proof of the ignorance or negligence of these authors, that, in illustrating the nature and perfections of the Deity, they make not the least mention of his infinity, his omniscience, his immensity, his eternity, his omnipotence, his omnipresence, his spirituality, nor of those other perfections of the divine nature that surpass the comprehension of finite minds. Instead of this they characterize the Supreme Being only by his wisdom, his immortality, his goodness, and unbounded dominion and empire over the creatures. By this it would seem, that, even in this early period of Socinianism, the rulers of that sect had adopted it as a maxim, that nothing incomprehensible or mysterious was to be admitted into their religious system.—Their erroneous notion concerning Jesus Christ is expressed in the following terms: "Our mediator before the throne of God is a man who was formerly pro nised to our fathers by the prophets, and in these latter days was born of the seed of David, and whom God the Father has made Lord and Christ, that is, the most perfect prophet, the most holy priest, and the most triumphant king, by whom he created the new world (5), by whom he has sent peace upon earth, restored all things and reconciled them to himself; and by whom also he has bestowed eternal life upon his elect; to the end that, after the supreme God, we should believe in him, adore and invoke him, hear his voice, imitate his example, and find in him rest to our souls" (6). It is here worthy of note,

(5) This expression is remarkable; for these doctors maintained, that these declarations of Scripture, which represent the world as formed by Christ, do not relate to the visible world, but to the restoration of mankind to virtue and happiness by the Son of God. They invented this interpretation to prevent their being obliged to acknowledge the divine glory and creating power of Christ.

(6) Est homo, mediator noster apud Deurs, patribus olim per prophetas promissus, et ultimis randem temporibus ex Davidis semine natus, quem Deus pater fecit Dominum et Christum, hoc est, perfectissimum prophetam, sanctissimum, sacerdotem, invictissimum regem, per quem mundum creavit, omnia restauravit, secum reconciliavit, pacificavit, et vitam æternam electis suis donavit: ut in illum, post Deum altissimum, credamus, illum adoremus, invocemus, audiamus, pro modulo nostro imitamur, et, in illo, requiem animahus nostris inveniamus.

ant and fundamental. Nor will this appear sur-CENT.

prising to those who consider, that the papers of Sect. III.

LÆLIUS PART II.

that although they call Christ a most boly priest, and justify this title by citations from Scripture, yet they no where explain the nature of that priesthood, which they attribute to him.—With respect to the Holy Ghost, they plainly deny his being a divine person, and represent him as nothing more than a divine quality, or virtue, as appears from the following passage: "The Holy Ghost is the energy or perfection of God, whose fulness God the Father bestowed upon his only begotten Son, our Lord, that we, becoming his adopted children, might receive of his fulness" (7).—They express their sentiments concerning Justification in the ensuing terms: "Justification consists in the remission of all our past sins, through the mere grace and mercy of God, in and by our Lord Jesus Christ, without our me-. rits and works, and in consequence of a lively faith, as also in the certain hope of life eternal, and the true and unfeigned amendment of our lives and conversations, through the assistance of the divine Spirit, to the glory of God the Father, and the edification of our neighbours" (8). As by this inaccurate definition justification comprehends in it amendment and obedience, so in the explication of this point our authors break in upon the. following one, which relates to Discipline, and lay down a short summary of moral doctrine, which is contained in a few precepts, and expressed for the most part in the language of Scripture. There is this peculiarity in their moral injunctions, that they prohibit the taking of oaths and the repelling of injuries. As to what regards Ecclesiastical Discipline, they define it thus: & Ecclesiastical discipline consists in calling frequently to the remembrance of every individual, the duties that are incumbent upon them in admonishing, first privately, and afterwards, if this be ineffectual, in a public manner before the whole congregation, such as have sinned openly against God, or offended their neighbour; and, lastly, in excluding from the communion of the church the obstinate and impenitent, that, being thus covered with shame, they may be led to repentance, or, if they remain unconverted, may be damned eternally" (9). By their further explication

(7) Spiritos sanctus est virtus Dei, cujus plenitudinem dedit Deus pater filio suo unigenito, Domino nostro, ut ex ejus plenitudine nos adoptivi acciperenus.

(8) Justificatio est ex mera gratia, per Dominum nostrum Jesum Christum, sine operibus et meritis nostris, omnium præteritorum peccatorum no trorum in viva fide remissio, vitæque æternæ indubitata expectatio et auxilio spiritus. Dei vitæ nostræ non simulata, sed vera correctio, ad gloriama. Dei patris nostri et ædificationem proximorum nostrorum.

(9) Disciplina ecclesiastica est officii singulorum frequens commemoratio et peccantiam contra Deum vel proximum primum privata, deinde etium publica, coram toto cœtu, commonefactio, denique pertinacium a communione sanctorum alienatio, ut pudore suffusi convertantur, aut, si id

polint, æternum damnentur.

SECT. III. behind him in Poland, were in the hands of many; and that, by the perusal of them, the Arians, who had formerly the upper hand in the community of the Unitarians, were engaged to change their sentiments concerning the nature and mediation of Christ.

explication of the point relating to ecclessiastical discipline, we see how imperfect and incomplete their notions of that matter were. For they treat in the first place, concerning the government of the church and its ministers, whom they divide into bishops, deacons, elders, and widows. After this they enumerate, at length, the duties of husbands and wives, old and young, parents and children, masters and servants, citizens and magistrates, poor and rich; and conclude with what relates to the admonishing of offenders, and their exclusion from the communion of the church, in case of obstinate impenitence. Their sentiments concerning Prayer, are, generally speaking, sound and rational. But in their notion of Baptism, they differ from other Christian churches in this, that they make it to consist in immersion or dipping, and emersion or rising again out of the water, and maintain that it ought not to be administered to any but adult persons. " "Baptism, say they, is the immersion into water, and the emersion of one who believes in the gospel, and is truly penitent, performed in the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, or in the name of Jesus Christ alone; by which solemn act the person baptized publicly acknowledgeth, that he is cleansed from all his sins, through the mercy of God the Father, by the blood of Christ, and the operation of the Holy Spirit, to the end that, being ingrafted into the body of Christ, he may mortify the old Adam, and be transformed into the image of the new and heavenly Adam, in the firm assurance of eternal life after the resurrection." (10). The last point handled in this performance is the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, of which the authors give an explication that will be readily adopted by those who embrace the doctrine of Zuingle on that head. the end of this curious Catechism there is a piece entitled, "Oeconomia Christiana, seu Pastoratus Domesticus," which contain a short instruction to heads of families, shewing them how they ought to proceed in order to maintain and increase in their houses a spirit of piety; in which also their devotion

(10) Baptismus est hominis Evangelio credentis et pœnitentiam agentis in nomine Patris, et Filii, et Spiritus Sancti, vel in nomine Jesu Christi in aquam immersio et emersio, qua publice profitetur, se gratia Dei Patris, in sanguine Christi, opera Spiritus Sancti, ab omnibus peccatis ablutum esse, ut, in corpus Christi insertus, mortificet veterem Adamum et transformetur in Adamum illum cœlestum, certus, se post resurrectionem consequuturum esse vitam æternam.

Christ [a]. It is true, indeed, that the denomina-C E N To tion of Socinian was not as yet known. Those Sect. III. who were afterwards distinguished by this title, Part II. passed in Poland, at the time of which we now speak, under the name of Anabaptists, because they admitted to baptism adult persons only, and also rebaptized those that joined them from other Christian churches [b].

XI. The

devotion is assisted by forms of prayer, composed for morning, evening, and other occasions.

The copy of this Catechism, which is now before me, was given, in the year 1680, by Martin Chelmius, one of the most eminent and zealous Socinian doctors, to Mr Christopher Heiligmier, as appears by a long inscription, written by the donor, at the end of the book. In this inscription Chelmius promises his friend other productions of the same kind, provided he receives the present one kindly, and concludes with these words of St Paul; God bath chosen the weak things of

the world to confound the strong.

[a] This appears evidently from the following passage in Schoman's Testamentum (published by Sandius, in his Biblioth. Anti-Trin.) p. 194, 195. " Sub id fere tempus (A. 1566.) ex rhapsodiis Lælii Socini quidam fratres didicerunt, Dei filium non esse secundam Trinitatis personam, patri coëssentialem et comqualem, sed hominum Jesum Christum, ex Spiritu Sancto conceptum, ex Virgine Maria natum, crucifixum, et resuscitatum: a quibus nos commoniti, sacras literas perserutari, persuasi sumus." These words shew plainly, that the Unitarians, or Pinczovians, as they were sometimes called, had, before their separation from the Reformed church in the year 1565, believed in a Trinuy of some kind or other; and had not gone so far as totally to divest Jesus Christ of his divinity. Schoman, now cited, was a doctor of great authority in this sect; and he tells us, himself, that, at the diet of Petricow, in the year 1565, he defended the unity of God the Father against the Reformed, who maintained the existence of a threefold Deity. We learn nevertheless from himself; that it was not till the year 1566, that a perusal of the papers of Lælius Socinus had engaged him to change his sentiments, and to deny the divine personality of Christ. What then are we to conclude from hence? The conclusion is plainly this: that, before the year last mentioned, he and his Pinczovian flock were not Socinians, but Arians only.

[b] This the Unitarians acknowledge, in the Preface of their Gatechism, as we have observed above; and it is con-

firmed

The pro-

CENT XI. The dexterity and perseverance of FAUSTUS XVI. Socious gave a new face to the sect of the Uni-SECT. III. dustrious patron. He was a man of true genius, eccedings of but of little learning; firm in his purposes, and Faustus So-steady in his measures; much inferior in knowcinus. ledge to his uncle Lælius, while he surpassed him greatly in courage and resolution. This eminent sectary, after having wandered through several countries of *Europe*, settled, in the year 1579, among the *Unitarians* in *Poland*, and at his arrival there suffered many vexations and much opposition from a considerable number of persons, who looked upon some of his tenets as highly erro-And, indeed, it is evident, that the religious system of Faustus Socinus, which he is said to have drawn from the papers of his uncle Lælius, was much less remarkable for its simplicity than that of the Unitarians. He triumphed, however, at last, over all the difficulties that had been laid in his way, by the power of his eloquence, the spirit and address that reigned in his compositions, the elegance and gentleness of his manners, the favour and protection of the nobility, which he had acquired by his happy talents and accomplishments, and also by some lucky hits of fortune that favoured his enterprizes. By seizing the occasions when it was prudent to yield, and improving the moments that demanded bold' resistance and firm resolution, he stemmed dexterously and courageously the torrent of opposition, and beheld the Unitarians submitting to his doctrine,

> Ermed by the writer of the Epistola de Vita Andr. Wissowatii, which is subjoined to the Bibliotheca Anti-Trin. of Sandius. This writer tells us, that his sect were distinguished by the denominations of Anabaptists and Arians; but that all other Christian communities and individuals in Poland were promiscuously called Chraesciani, from the word Chraest, which significs Beptiem

trine, which they had before treated with indig-C E N T, nation and contempt. They, in effect, laid aside SECT. III. all feuds and controversies, and formed themselves PART II. into one community under his superintendency and direction [c].

XII. Thus did Socinus introduce a consider-The Unitarian system, rian reliable change into the ancient Unitarian system, rian religion chanwhich, before his time, was ill-digested, ill ex-ged by sopressed, and chargeable in many places with ambiguity and incoherence. He disguised its inconsistencies, gave it an air of connexion, method, and elegance, and defended it with much more dexterity and art, than had ever been discovered by its former patrons [d]. And, accordingly, the

[c] See Bayle's Dictionary, at the article Socious, tom. iv. p. 2741.—Sandii Biblioth. Anti-Trin. p. 64.—Sam. Przypcopii Vita Socini, which is prefixed to the works of Socious.—Lamy Histoire du Sociousme, part I. ch. xxiv. p. 101.

part II. ch. xxii. p. 375, &c.

[d] Hence it appears, that the modern Unitarians are very properly called Socinians. For certainly the formation and establishment of that sect were entirely owing to the labours of Lælius and Faustus Socinus. The former, indeed, who was naturally timorous and irresolute, died at Zurich, in the year 1562, in the communion of the Reformed church, and seemed unwilling to expose himself to danger, or to sacrifice his repose, by founding a new sect, that is, by appearing professedly and openly in this enterprize. Besides, many circumstances concur to render it highly probable, that he did not finish the religious system of which he had formed the plan, but died, on the contrary, in a state of uncertainty and doubt with respect to several points of no small importance. But, notwithstanding all this, he contributed much to the institution of the sect now under consideration. For he collected the materials that Faustus afterwards digested and employed with such dexterity and success. He secretly and imperceptibly excited doubts and scruples in the minds of many, concerning several doctrines generally received among Christians; and, by several arguments against the divinity of Christ, which he left behind him committed to writing. he so far seduced. even after his death, the Arians in Poland, that they embraced the communion and sentiments of those, who looked upon Christ as a mere man, created immediately, like Adam.

E N T the affairs of the *Unitarians* put on a new face.

NVI. Under the auspicious protection of such a spirited

PART II. and insinuating chief; the little flock, that had been hitherto destitute of strength, resolution, and courage, grew apace, and all of a sudden, arose to a high degree of credit and influence. Its number was augmented by proselytes of all ranks and orders. Of these some were distinguished by their nobility, others by their opulence, others by their address, and many by their learning and eloquence. All these contributed, in one way or another, to increase the lustre, and to advance the interests of this rising community, and to support it against the multitude of adversaries, which its remarkable prosperity and success had raised up against it from all quarters; the rich maintained it by their liberality, the powerful by their patronage and protection, and the learned by their writings. But now the system of the Unitarians, being thus changed and new-modelled, required a new confession of faith to make known its principles, and give a clear and full account of its present state. The ancient Catechism, which was no more than a rude and incoherent sketch, was therefore laid aside, and a new form of doctrine was drawn up by Socinus himself. This form was corrected by some, augmented by others, and revised by all the Socinian doctors of any note; and, having thus acquired a competent degree of accuracy

> Adam, by God himself. What Lælius had thus begun, Faustus carried on with vigour, and finished with success. It is indeed disticult, nay scarcely possible, to determine precisely, what materials he received from his uncle, and what tenets he added himself; that he added several is plain enough. This difficulty arises from hence, that there are few writings of Laclius extant, and of those that bear his name, some undoubtedly belong to other authors. We learn, however, from Faustus himself, that the doctrine he propagated, with respect to the person of Christ, was, at least, the greatest part of it, brouched by his uncle Lxlius.

accuracy and perfection, was published under the C E N T. title of the Catechism of Racow, and is still consisted. XVI. dered as the Confession of Faith of the whole sect. PARTIL. An unexpected circumstance crowned all the fortunate events that had happened to this sect, and seemed to leave them nothing further to desire; and this was the zealous protection of Jacobus A Sienno, to whom Racow belonged. This new patron, separating himself from the Reformed church, in the year 1600, embraced the doctrine and communion of the Socinians, and about two years after, erected in his own city, which he declared their metropolis, a public school, designed as a seminary for their church, to form its ministers and pastors [e].

XIII. From Poland, the doctrine of Socious made its way into Transylvania, in the year 1563, The Propaand that, principally, by the credit and influence Socinianof George Blandrata, a celebrated physician, ism, in Transylvawhom Sigismund, at that time sovereign of the nia and country, had invited to his court, in order to the Hungary. restoration of his health. Blandrata was a man of uncommon address, had a deep knowledge of men and things, and was particularly acquainted with the manners, transactions, and intrigues of courts. He had brought with him a Socinian minister, whose name was Francis David, who seconded his efforts with such zeal, that, by their united solicitations and labours, they engaged the prince, and the greatest part of the nobility, in their cause, infected almost the whole province with their errors, and obtained, for the ministers and members of their communion, the privilege of professing and propagating their doctrines in a public manner. The Batori, indeed, who were afterwards chosen dukes of Transylvania, were, by Vol. IV.

<sup>[</sup>e] See Wissowatii Narratio de Senaratione Univariorum a Reformotis, p. 214.—Lubienie Euus, Histor. Reformatorum, Polon. lib. iii. c. xii. p. 240.

CENT.no means, prejudiced in favour of the Socinians; SECT. III. but that sect was grown so powerful by its num-PARTH bers, and its influence, that they could not, in prudence, attempt to suppress it [f]. Such also was the case with the successors of the Batori; they desired ardently to extirpate this society, but never could bring this desire into execution; so that to this day the Socinians profess their religion publicly in this province, and, indeed, in it alone; and, relying on the protection of the laws, and the faith of certain treaties that have been made with them, have their churches and seminaries of learning, and hold their ecclesiastical and religious assemblies, though exposed to perpetual dangers and snares from the vigilance of their adversaries [g]. About the same time the Socinians endeavoured to form settlements in Hungary [b] and Austria [i]; but these attempts were defeated by the united and zealous opposition both of the Roman-catholic and Reformed churches.

In Holland and England.

XIV. No sooner had the Socinians obtained a solid and happy settlement at Racow, but the dictates of zeal and ambition suggested to them views of a still more extensive nature. Encouraged by the protection of men in power, and the suffrages of men of learning and genius, they began to lay several plans for the enlargement of their community, and meditated nothing less than the propagation

[g | Gustav. Georg. Zeltneri Historia Crypto-Secinismi Alvorfi-i. cap. ii p. 357. 359.

[b] DEBREZENI Histor. Eccles. Reform. in Hungaria, p. 169.
[i] HENR. SPONDANI Continuat. Annat. Baronii, ed A. 1568, n. xxiv. p. 704.

<sup>[</sup>f] See SANDII Biblioth. Anti-Trinit. p. 28. & 55—PAULI DERREZENI Historia Ecclesiæ Reformatæ in Hungaria, p. 147.
—Mart. Schmeizelli De statu Eccles. Lutheranæ in Transylvania, p. 55—Lamy, Hist. du Socinianisme, part I. ch. xiii. p. 46.—Salig, Histor. Aug. Confessionis, vol. ii. lib. vi. cap. vii. p. 847

propagation of their doctrine through all the states CENT of Europe. The first step they took towards the Sect. III. execution of this purpose, was the publication of PARTIL a considerable number of books, of which some were designed to illustrate and defend their theological system, and others to explain, or rather to pervert, the sacred writings into a conformity with their peculiar tenets. These books, which were composed by the most subtile and artful doctors of the sect, were printed at Racow, and dispersed with the utmost industry and zeal through different countries [k]. They also sent missionaries to several places, towards the conclusion of this century, as appears evident from authentic records, in order to make proselytes, and to erect new congregations. These missionaries seemed every way qualified to gain credit to the cause in which they had embarked, as some of them were distinguished by the lustre of their birth, and others by the extent of their learning, and the power of their eloquence; and yet, notwithstanding these uncommon advantages, they failed, almost every where, in their attempts. A small congregation was founded at Dantzic, which subsisted, for some time, in a clandestine manner. and then gradually dwindled to nothing [1]. The first attempts to promote the cause of Socinianism in Holland, were made by a person whose name was Erasmus Johannis [m]. After him Christ-

[k] A considerable number of these books were republished together, in the year 1656, in one great collection, consisting of six volumes in folio, under the title of Bibliotheca Fratrum Polonorum. There are, indeed, in this collection many pieces wanting, which were composed by the most eminent leaders of the sect; but what is there published is, nevertheless, sufficient to give the attentive reader a clear idea of the doctrine of the Socinians, and of the nature of their institution as a religious community.

[1] GUSTAV. GEORG. ZELTNERI Hist. Crypto-Socinismi

Altorhm, p. 199.

[m] SANDIUS, Bibliotheca Anti-Trinit. p. 87.

CENT. OPHER OSTOROD, and ANDREW VOIDIOVIUS, who

Sec. III. were the main pillars of the sect, used their ut-PART II most endeavours to gain disciples and followers in that country; nor were their labours wholly unsuccessful, though the zeal of the clergy, and the vigilance of the magistrates, prevented their forming any regular assemblies, and thus effectually checked their progress [n], and hindered their party from acquiring any considerable degree of strength and stability [o]. Socinianism did not meet with a better reception in Britain than in Holland. It was introduced into Germany by ADAM NEUSER, and other emissaries, who infected the Palatinate with its errors, having entered into a league with the Transylvanians, at the critical period when the affairs of the Unitarians, in Poland, carried a dubious and unpromising aspect. this pernicious league was soon detected and the schemes of its authors entirely blasted and disconcerted; upon which Neuser went into Turkey, and enlisted among the Janizaries [p].

The main principle of Sociniantsm.

XV. Although the Socinians profess to believe that all our knowledge of divine things is derived solely from the Holy Scriptures; yet they maintain in reality, that the sense of scripture is to be investigated and explained by the dictates of right reason,

[n] Brandt, in his History of the Reformation of the Netherlands, tells us, that Ostorod and Voidiovius were banished, and that their books were condemned to be burnt publicly by the hands of the common hangman. Accordingly the pile was raised, the executioner approached, and the multitude was assembled, but the books did not appear. The magistrates, who were curious to peruse their contents, had quietly divided them among themselves and their friends.

[0] ZELTNERUS, Hist. Crypto-Socinismi, &c. p. 31. & 178. [ 0] BURCH. GOTT. STRUVII Hist. Eccles. Palat. cap. viii. sect. liii. p. 214.—ALTING. Hist. Eccles. Palat. in MIEGII Mcnum Point. p. 266-337 .- LA CROZE, Dissertations Historiques. tom. i. p. 101. 127. compared with BERN, RAUPACHIUS, his Presbyterolizia Austriaca, p. 113. where there is an account of John Mattheus, who was concerned in these troubles.

reason, to which, of consequence, they attribute C F N T. a great influence in determining the nature, and SECT. III. unfolding the various doctrines of religion. When PART II. their writings are perused with attention, they will be found to attribute more to reason, in this matter, than most other Christian societies. For they frequently insinuate artfully, nay sometimes declare plainly, that the sacred penmen were guilty of several mistakes, from a defect of memory, as well as a want of capacity: that they expressed their sentiments without either perspicuity or precision, and rendered the plainest things obscure by their pompous and diffuse Asiatic style; and that it was therefore absolutely necessary to employ the lamp of human reason to cast a light upon their doctrine, and to explain it in a manner conformable to truth. It is easy to see what they had in view by maintaining propositions of this kind. They aimed at nothing less than the establishment of the following general rule, vix. That the history of the Jews and of Jesus Ghrist was indeed to be derived from the books of the Old and New Testament, and that it was not lawful to entertain the least doubt concerning the truth of this history, and the authenticity of these books in general; but that the particular doctrines which they contain, were, nevertheless, to be understood, and explained in such a manner as to render them conformable to the dictates of reason. According to this representation of things, it is not the Holy Scripture, which declares clearly and expressly what we are to believe concerning the nature, counsels, and perfections of the Deity; but it is human reason, which shews us the system of religion that we ought to seek in, and deduce from, the divine oracles.

XVI. This fundamental principle of Socini-The dangeanism will appear more dangerous and pernicious, rous consewhen we consider the sense in which the word this prince-Reason Ple.

C E R T. Reason was understood by this sect. The pompous

SECT. III. title of Right Reason was given, by the Socinians, Parti to that measure of intelligence and discernment, or, in other words, to that faculty of comprehending and judging, which we derive from nature. According to this definition, the fundamental rule of the Socinians necessarily supposes, that doctrine ought to be acknowledged as true in its nature, or divine in its origin, all whose parts are not level to the comprehension of the human understanding; and that, whatever the Holy Scriptures teach concerning the perfections of God, his counsels and decrees, and the way of salvation, must be modified, curtailed, and filed down, in such a manner, by the transforming power of art and argument, as to answer the extent of our limited faculties. Those who adopt this singular rule, must at the same time, grant that the number of religions must be nearly equal to that of individuals. For as there is a great variety in the talents and capacities of different persons, so what will appear difficult and abstruse to one, will seem evident and clear to another; and thus the more discerning and penetrating will adopt as divine truth, what the slow and superficial will look upon as unintelligible jargon. This consequence does not at all alarm the Socinians, who suffer their members to explain, in very different ways, many doctrines of the highest importance, and permit every one to follow his particular fancy in composing his theological system, provided they acknowledge, in general, the truth and authenticity of the history of Christ, and adhere to the precepts the Gospel lays down for the regulation of our lives and actions.

The sum and substance of Socialanįsm.

XVII. In consequence of this leading maxim, the Socinians either reject without exception, or change and accommodate to their limited capacities, all those doctrines relating to the nature of

God

God and of Jesus Christ, the plan of redemp- CE NT. tion, and the eternal rewards and punishments XVI. unfolded in the Gospel, which they either cannot PARTII. comprehend, or consider as attended with considerable difficulties. The sum of their theology is as follows: "God, who is infinitely more " perfect than man, though of a similar na-"ture in some respects, exerted an act of that " power by which he governs all things; in con-" sequence of which an extraordinary person was "born of the Virgin Mary. That person was " Jesus Christ, whom God first translated to "heaven by that portion of his divine power, " which is called the Holy Ghost; and having in-" structed him fully there in the knowledge of his " will, counsels, and designs, sent him again into "this sublunary world, to promulgate to man-" kind a new rule of life, more excellent than that " under which they had formerly lived, to propa-" gate divine truth by his ministry, and to con-" firm it by his death.

"Those who obey the voice of this Divine "Teacher (and this obedience is in the power ... " of every one whose will and inclination leads "that way), shall one day be clothed with new " bodies, and inhabit eternally those blessed re-" gions, where God himself immediately resides. "Such, on the contrary, as are disobedient and " rebellious, shall undergo most terrible and ex-" quisite torments, which shall be succeeded by "annihilation, or the total extinction of their " being."

The whole system of Socinianism, when stripped of the embellishments and commentaries with which it has been loaded and disguised by its doctors, is really reducible to the few propositions now mentioned.

XVIII. The nature and genius of the Socinian The moral theology has an immediate influence upon the doctrine of L 1 4 moral nians

C E N T moral system of that sect, and naturally leads its SECT. III. doctors to confine their rules of morality and vir-PART Il tue to the external actions and duties of life. On the one hand, they deny the influence of a divine spirit and power upon the minds of men; and on the other, they acknowledge, that no mortal has such an empire over himself as to be able to suppress or extinguish his sinful propensities and corrupt desires. Hence they have no conclusion left, but one, and that is, to declare all such true and worthy Christians, whose words and external actions are conformable to the precepts of the Divine law. It is, at the same time, remarkable, that another branch of their doctrine leads directly to the utmost severity in what relates to life and manners, since they maintain, that the great end of Christ's mission upon earth was to exhibit to mortals a new law, distinguished from all others by its unblemished sanctity and perfection. Hence it is that a great number of the Socinians have fallen into the fanatical rigour of the ancient Anabaptists, and judged it absolutely unlawful to repeal injuries, to take oaths, to inflict! capital punishments on malefactors, to oppose the despotic proceedings of tyrannical magistrates, to acquire wealth by honest industry, and other things of that nature. But, in this, there is something extremely singular, and they are here, indeed, inconsistent with themselves. For while, in matters of doctrine, they take the greatest liberty with the expressions of Scripture, and pervert them in a violent manner, to the defence of their peculiar tenets, they proceed quite otherwise, when they come to prescribe rules of conduct from the precepts of the Gospel; for then they understand these precepts literally, and apply them without the least distinction of times, persons, and circumstances.

XIX. It must carefully be observed, that the CENT. Catechism of Racow, which most people look upon SECT.III. as the great standard of Socinianism, and as an ac-PARTIL curate summary of the doctrine of that sect, is, in The Catereality, no more than a collection of the popular chism of tenets of the Socinians, and by no means a just Racow. representation of the secret opinious and sentiments of their doctors [q]. The writings, therefore, of these learned men must be perused with attention, in order to our knowing the hidden reasons and true principles from whence the doctrines of the Catechism are derived. It is observable, besides, that, in this Catechism, many Socinian tenets and institutions, which might have contributed to render the sect still more odious, and to expose its internal constitution too much to public view, are entirely omitted; so that it seems to have been less composed for the use of the Socinians themselves, than to impose upon strangers, and to mitigate the indignation which the tenets of this community had excited in the minds of many [r]. Hence it never obtained, among the Socinians, the authority of a public confession or rule of faith; and hence the doctors of that sect were authorised to correct and contradict it, or to substitute another form of doctrine in its place. It is also observable, that the most eminent writers and patrons of the Socinians, give no clear or consistent account of the sentiments of that sect in relation

<sup>[</sup>q] We have an account of the authors of this famous Cate-chism, and of the various success it met with, in the Commentatio de Catechesi Racoviensi, published by Jo. AND. SCHMIDIUS, in the year 1707. See also Koechieki Biblioth. Theolog. Symbolicæ.—A new edition of the Catechism itself, with a solid refutation of the doctrine it contains, was published in 8vo at Francfort and Leipsick, in the year 1739, by the learned George Lewis Oeder.

<sup>[</sup>r] This appears evident enough from their presenting a Latin translation of this Catechism to JAMES I, king of Great Britain, and a German one to the academy of Wittemberg.

SECT. III. ment, and the form of public worship. All that PARTII. we know is, that they follow in these matters, generally speaking, the customs received in the protestant churches [s].

The state of learning among the Soumans.

XX. The first founders and patrons of this sect were eminently distinguished by their learning and genius. Their successors, however, did not follow their steps in this respect, nor keep up the reputation they had universally obtained. The Unitarians in Poland seem to have had little ambition of science. They gave no encouragement to learning or talents; and appeared little solicitous of having in their community subtile doctors and learned disputants. But, when they perceived on the one hand, that the success of their community required as able defenders, as they had learned and ingenious adversaries; and were so lucky, on the other, as to obtain the privilege of erecting seminaries of learning at Racow and Lublin, they then changed their sentiments with respect to this matter, and became sensible of the necessity under which they lay, to encourage in their community a zeal for the sciences. zeal increased greatly from the time that FAUSTUS Sociaus undertook the restoration of their declining credit, and put himself at the head of their tottering sect. At that time many persons, distinguished by their birth, education, and talents, **e**mbraced

<sup>[</sup>s] This is manifest from a work composed by-Peter Morscovius, or Morscowsky, under the following title; "Politia Ecclesiastica, quam vulgo Agenda vocant, sive forma Regiminis exterioris Ecclesiarum Christianarum in Polonia, quae unum Deum Patrem, per filium ejus Umgenitum in Spiritu Sancto, confermtur." This work, which is divided into three books, was composed in the year 1642, and published in 4to at Nuremberg, but a few years ago, by the learned George Lewis Ceder. It is mentioned by Sandius, in his Biblioth. Anti-Trinit. p. 142. who says that it was drawn up for the use of the Belgic churches.

CHAP. IV.

embraced its doctrine, and contributed to pro-cent.

mote the love of science among its members.

XVI.

Then the youth were taught the rules of eloquence part III.

and rhetoric, and instructed in the important branches of Oriental, Greek, and Latin literature.

Nay, even the secret paths of philosophy were opened, though their treasures were disclosed only to a few, who were selected, for that purpose, from the multitude. The Racovian doctors, in compliance with the spirit and taste of the age, chose Aristotle as their guide in philosophy, as appears evidently from the Ethics of Crellius, and other literary records of these times.

XXI. Notwithstanding this progress of philo-Their mesophy among the Socinians, their doctors seemed thod of to reject its succours in theology with obstinacy in theoloand disdain. They declare, in numberless places gr. of their writings, that both in the interpretation of scripture, and in explaining and demonstrating the truth of religion in general, clearness and simplicity are alone to be consulted, and no regard paid to the subtilties of philosophy and logic. And, indeed, had their doctors and interpreters followed in practice, this rule that they have laid down with so much ostentation in theory, they would have saved their adversaries, and perhaps themselves, much trouble. But this is by no means the case. For, in the greatest part of their theological productions, their pretended simplicity is frequently accompanied with much subtility, and with the most refined intricacies of scientific art. And, what is still more inexcusable, they reason with the greatest dexterity and acuteness concerning those subjects, which (as they surpass the reach of the human understanding) are generally, received, among other Christians, as facts confirmed by the most respectable testimony, and consequently as matters of pure faith, while they discover little sagacity, or strength of judgment,

C E N T. ment, in those discussions which are within the XVI.

SECT. III. sphere of reason, and are properly amenable to PART II. its tribunal. They are acute where they ought to be silent, and they reason awkwardly where sagacity and argument are required. These are certainly great inconsistencies; yet they proceed from one and the same principle, even the maxim universally received in this community, that all things that surpass the limits of human comprehension are to be entirely banished from the Christian religion.

The divi-Socinians, and their' intestine chatrover-ALCS.

XXII. It has been already observed, that the sions of the Unitarians had no sooner separated themselves from the Reformed churches in Poland, than they became a prey to intestine divisions, and were split into several factions. The points of doctrine that gave rise to these divisions, related to the dignity of Christ's nature and character, the unlawfulness of Infant-Baptism, the personality of the Holy-Ghast, to which were added several alterations, concerning the duties of life, and the rules of conduct that were obligatory on Christians. The sects, produced by these divisions, were not all equally obstinate. Some of them entertained pacific dispositions, and seemed inclined towards a reconciliation. But two, particularly, maintained tenaciously their sentiments, and persisted in their separation; these were the Budnæans and the Farnovians. The former were so called from Budnæans. their leader SIMON BUDNÆUS, a man of considerable acuteness and sagacity, who, more dexterous than the rest of his brethren in deducing consequences from their principles, and perceiving plainly the conclusions to which the peculiar principles of Lælius Socinus naturally led; denied flatly all kinds of religious worship to Jesus CHRIST. Nor did Budnæus stop here; in order to give a more specious colour to this capital error, and to maintain it upon consistent grounds, he asserted that Christ was not begotten by an extrordinary

extraordinary act of divine power, but that hecent. was born like other men, in a natural way. This Sect.III, hypothesis, however conformable to the funda-PARTIL mental principles of Socinianism, appeared intolerable and impious to the greatest part of that community. Hence Budnæus, who had gained over to his doctrine a great number of proselytes in Lithuania and Russian Poland, was deposed from his ministerial functions, in the year 1584, and publicly excommunicated with all his disciples. It is said, however, that he afterwards abandoned his peculiar and offensive sentiments, and was again re-admitted to the communion of that sect [t].

XXIII. This heretical doctrine, which had The senticreated so much trouble to Budnæus, was soon Budnæus after adopted by Francis Davides, a Hunga-embraced rian, who was the superintendant of the Soci-by Davides nian churches in Iransylvania, and who opposed, ken with the greatest ardour and obstinacy, the custom of offering up prayers, and divine worship to Jesus CHRIST. Several methods were used to reclaim him from this offensive error. BLANDRATA employed all the power of his eloquence for this purpose, and, to render his remoustrances still more effectual, sent for Faustus Socinus, who went accordingly into Transylvania, in the year 1573, and seconded his arguments and exhortations with the utmost zeal and perseverance. But Davides remained unmoved, and was, in consequence of this obstinate adherence to his error, thrown into prison

<sup>[1]</sup> See SANDII Biblioth. Anti Trinit. p. 54, 55.—Epistola de Vita Wissowatii, p. 226,—RINGELTAUBE's German Dissertation on the Polish Bibles, p. 144. 152 .- Samuel Crellius, the most learned Socinian of our times, looks upon Adam Neuser \*. who was banished on account of his erroneous sentiments, to have been the author of this doctrine, which is so derogatory from the dignity of Jesus Christ. See Ckillan Thesaur. Eris-10/. Creziin. tom. i. p. 111. - See sect. xiv. of this chapter.

CENT. prison by Christopher Bathory, prince of SECT. III. Transylvania; where he died, in the year 1579, PARTIL in an advanced age [u]. This his unhappy fate did not, however, extinguish the controversy to which his doctrine had given rise. For he left behind him disciples and friends, who strenuously maintained his sentiments, stood firm against the opposition that was made to them, and created much uneasiness to Socinus and his followers in Lithuania and Poland. The most eminent of these were JACOB PALEOLOGUS, of the isle of Chio, who was burnt at Rome, in the year 1585; Christian Francken, who had disputed in person with Socinus; and John Summer [w], who was master of the academy of Clausenburg [x]. This little sect branded by the Socinian writers, with the ignominious appellation of Semi-Judaizers [y].

[u] SANDIUS, Biblioth. Anti-Trinit. p. 55. 56.—FAUST. Social Oper. tom. i. p. 353. 395. tom. ii. p. 713. 771, where there is an account of his conference and dispute with FRANCIS DAVIDES.—STAN. LUBIENIECII Histor. Reform. Polonica, lib. iii. c. xi. p. 228.

XXIV. Th

[w] See Sandius, loc. cit. p. 57, 58. The dispute between Sociaus and Francken is related at large in the Works of the

former, tom. ii. p. 767.

sylvania, extremely populous and well fortified. The Socinians have here a public school and a printing-house; and their community in this place is very numerous. Till the year 1603, they were in possession of the cathedral, which was then taken from them and given to the Jesuits, whose college and church

they had pulled down.

[17] FAUSTUS SOCINUS wrote a particular Treatise against the Semi-Judaizers, which is published in the second volume of his Works, p. 804. It is, however, worthy of observation, that the motive which engaged Socinus and his friends to employ so much pains and labour in the suppression of this faction, was not a persuasion of the pernicious tendency of its doctrines or peculiar notions. On the contrary, Socinus himself expressly acknowledges, that this controversy turns upon matters of very little importance, by declaring it, as his opinion, that praying or offering up divine worskip to Christ,

XXIV. The Farnovians were treated by the CENTS. Socinians with much more indulgence. They were SECT. III. neither excluded from the communion of the sect, PARTIL nor obliged to renounce their peculiar tenets; The Farthey were only exhorted to conceal them pru-novian dently, and not to publish or propagate them in sect. their discourses from the pulpit [2]. This particular branch of the Socinian community was so cal-

is not necessary to salvation. Thus, in answer to Wujeck, (Opp. tom. ii. p. 538.) he expresses himself in the following manner: The Christian, whose faith is so great, as to encourage bim to make his addresses habitually and directly to the Supreme Being, and who standeth not in need of the comfort that flows from the invocation of CHRIST, his brother, who was tempted in all things like as he is, that a Christian is not obliged to call upon the name of Jesus, by prayer or supplication . According therefore to the opinion of Socinus, those who lay aside all regard to Christ as an Intercessor, and address themselves directly to God alone, have a greater measure of faith than others. But, if this be so, why did he oppose with such vehemence and animosity the sentiment of DAVIDES, who, in effect, did no more than exhort all Christians to address themselves directly and immediately to the Father? Here there appears to be a striking inconsistency. We find also Lubieniecius, in his Histor. Reformat. Polonica, lib. iii. cap. xi. p. 228. speaking lightly enough of this controversy, and representing it as a matter of very little moment; whence he says, that in Transpluania there was much ado about nothing +. From all this, then, it appears manifest, that Sociaus and his followers were more artful than ingenuous in their proceedings with respect to DA-VIDES. They persecuted him and his followers, lest by tolerating his doctrine, they should increase the odium under which they already lay, and draw upon themselves anew, the resentment of other Christian churches, while in their private judgment, they looked upon this very doctrine, and its professors, as worthy of toleration and indulgence.

[2] Epistola de Vita Wissowatii, p. 226.—Erasmus Johannis (as we are informed by Sandius, Biblioth. Anti-Trinit. p. 87.) was admitted Professor of Divinity in the Sociain academy at Clausenburg, on condition, that in his public discourses he should never say any thing of Christ's having existed be-

\* Quod si quis tanta est fide præditus, ut ad Deum ipsum perpetuo recta accedere audeat, nec consolatione, quæ ex Christi Fratris sui per omnia tentati invocatione proficiscitur. indigeat, hic non opus habet, ut Christum invocatione proficiscitur.

't F n T. from Stanislaus Farnovius, or Farnesius, who

SECT. III. leystem to that of the Socinians, and consequenty asserted, that Christ had been engendered, or produced, out of nothing, by the Supreme Being, before the creation of this terrestrial globe. It is not so easy to say, what his sentiments were concerning the Holy Ghost; all we know of that matter is, that he warned his disciples against paying the tribute of religious worship to that divine Spirit [a]. FARNOVIUS separated from the other Unitarians, in the year 1568, and was followed, in this schism, by several persons eminent on account of the extent of their learning, and the influence of their rank, such as Martin Czechovicius, Neimoiovius, Stanislaus Wisnowius, John Falcon, George Schoman, and others. They did not, however, form themselves into a stable or permanent sect. The lenity and indulgence of the Socinians, together with the dexterity of their disputants, brought many of them back into the bosom of the community they had deserted, and considerable numbers were dispersed or regained by the prudence and address of Faus-TUS SOCINUS. So that at length the whole faction, being deprived of its chief, who died in the year 1615, was scattered abroad, and reduced to nothing [b].

[a] SANDIUS, Biblioth. p. 52. & passim.

## END OF THE FOURTH VOLUME.

Thomas Turnbull, Printer, Canongate, Edinburgh.

<sup>[</sup>b] We omit here an enumeration of the more famous Socinian writers who flourished in this century, because the greatest part of them have already been mentioned in the course of this History. The rest may be easily collected from Sandius.

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